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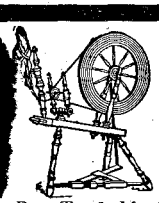

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Mr. Ryan on Metropolitan Traction Finance

The Grand Jury which has been investigating charges of criminal wrongdoing in the management of the surface transit lines comprising the Metropolitan system in New York City reported last week that it found no basis in any of the charges for indictments. In its statement the Jury said that at the beginning of its inquiry its members were "impressed with the deplorable condition of the street surface railways of the city, both on the physical and financial side," and that at the end of its work "much had appeared in methods and expenditures which, in the light of experience, sound business judgment would not sanction, and there were disbursements deserving severe condemnation." Nevertheless it had not been able to obtain any evidence showing the commission of a crime on which it could act. On the same day a statement was issued by Mr. Thomas F. Ryan, the leading figure in the recent history of the Metropolitan System, in defense of the actions of his associates and himself in connection with the associated transit lines. Mr. Ryan summarized the accusations against the Metropolitan managers and directors as follows:

1. That the stock of the company consists chiefly of "water."

2. That enormous profits were made by "insiders" through construction contracts and otherwise.

3. That in the purchase by the Metropolitan Securities Company of the Wall and Cortlandt Street Railway the "insiders" appropriated $111,000 each to his personal use.

Each of these charges he characterizes as false. In refutation of the first, he tells of the formation, in 1885, of the Metropolitan Traction Company of New Jersey, with an authorized capital of $10,000,000, for which $6,000,000 was paid into the treasury in cash. By subsequent operations, which included the formation of two other companies, the exchange of stocks of new companies for those of old, the increase of the capitalization of the succeeding companies, and the sale of additional stock for cash, the stock capitalization of the system became in 1900 $52,000,000, representing cash paid into the treasury of $43,240,000. The difference between the whole amount of cash paid into the company's treasury and the whole amount of stock issued Mr. Ryan considers to be a perfectly legitimate difference in view of the newness of the venture and the precariousness of the investment. The second charge Mr. Ryan meets with a description of what actually happened in a typical case. The Lexington Avenue Railroad Company was organized in 1893 and authorized to issue $5,000,000 of stock and $5,000,000 of bonds. The Metropolitan Traction Company contracted to build the road and to obtain for the Lexington Avenue Company the right to operate its cars on Twenty-third Street and Broadway in return for the stock and bond capital of the road. The $10,000,000 worth of securities were handed over to the Metropolitan, which sold the bonds at par and with the proceeds built the road. The stock remained in the treasury of the Metropolitan and was subsequently transformed into stock of the Metropolitan Street Railway Company. The same procedure was followed with the Columbus and Ninth Avenue Company, which issued to the Metropolitan $3,000,000 of stock and $3,000,000 of bonds. "There was no increase in capitalization to the public in any instance," says Mr. Ryan, "all of the issued shares of subordinate companies being held in the treasury of the Metro-

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politan Company, or pledged under mortgage, and never offered for sale." With regard to the third charge, Mr. Ryan asserts that the payments of $111,000 each to Messrs. Whitney, Dolan, Ryan, Widener, and Elkins were in repayment of sums advanced by them to the company "to cover expenditures which had been made for the benefit of the property." In concluding his statement Mr. Ryan ascribes the failure of the surface lines to outside causes, "mainly the results of State interference." Among these causes, he asserts, are:

1. The extension of the free transfer system.

2. Enormous increase in taxes, "the special franchise tax alone having almost doubled the system's burden of taxation."

3. The extraordinary congestion of street traffic, resulting in greatly increased cost of operation and maintenance, and also in an abnormal burden of accident claims, this item alone amounting to $2,000,000 a year, or about ten per cent of the gross receipts.

4. The competition of subway lines, built with the aid of the city's credit.

"The company was not looted," says Mr. Ryan; "it was throttled."

❀

Some Things Mr. Ryan Did Not Explain

The findings of the Grand Jury must be accepted as final in so far as the question whether crimes have been committed by the men in control of the Metropolitan system is concerned. But it should be noted that the Jury was not engaged in making a comprehensive examination of the affairs of the surface railways, but only investigating certain definite charges brought by individuals. It should also be remembered that the fact that there has been nothing criminal done does not prove that there has been nothing unbusinesslike, unfair, or dishonorable. But Mr. Ryan's statement we are by no means compelled to accept without examination; and examination reveals it as inadequate and misleading. The figures which he presents, showing the relation of the stock capitalization of the Metropolitan to the cash actually paid in, are probably accurate. But, in the first place, Mr. Ryan's story stops with the year 1900, since when, by the formation of the Metropolitan Securities Company and the Interborough-Metropolitan merger, the stock capitalization of the surface system has been more than doubled, with the addition of only a very small amount, if any, of new cash. In the second place, it gives no intimation of what the cash paid in was used for, a question which, in a case of this sort, is even more important than the question whether any cash at all was paid in. Mr. Ryan's statement shows that in 1893 the newly formed Metropolitan Street Railway Company bought from the Metropolitan Traction Company, giving in exchange its own stock, the stocks of several subordinate lines, aggregating $16,500,000. In another portion of his statement, doubtless not intended to be read in connection with the first, he shows that in the case of at least two of these subordinate lines the stocks represented not one single cent of actual cash paid in; the stocks of the Lexington Avenue and Columbus Avenue Railway Companies, amounting to eight millions, were all "water," and had cost the Metropolitan Traction Company nothing in cash; and Mr. Ryan states that there were "many other precisely similar transactions." What, then, was the $18,000,000 of cash paid into the Metropolitan Traction Company for its capital stock, used for? But, in the third place, Mr. Ryan has not answered the real accusation which is made with regard to the over-capitalization of the Metropolitan. The over-capitalization consists not so much in the issuance of stock for which cash has not been paid in, as in the burdening of the system with a tremendous load of indebtedness. Let us accept for the moment Mr. Ryan's explanation of the stock capitalization of the system as satisfactory. We would then like to have his explanation of the following facts: In 1886 the total liabilities of the roads now included in the Metropolitan system amounted to thirty-five and a half million dollars. In the next ten years the extensions and improvements actualiy

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made on these roads could have cost, on the most liberal basis possible, not more than five million dollars. In 1896, therefore, the total liabilities of the system might reasonably have been forty and a half millions. As a matter of fact, they were over seventy-six millions. Where, we would like to ask Mr. Ryan, did the additional thirty-five millions go? But now let us accept this figure of seventy-six millions as a new basis. In the next ten years the extensions and improvements actually made on the lines of the system might have cost, on an exceedingly liberal basis, somewhat over fifteen millions, and new cars, adapted to the use of electric power, which were bought, might have cost twelve millions more. Let us take these two figures together and increase their total to thirty-five millions for good measure. The liabilities of the system in 1906 would then have been less than one hundred and twelve millions; but, as a matter of fact, they actually were over two hundred and thirty-four millions. What, Mr. Ryan, became of the additional one hundred and twenty-two millions? We suspect that a full and complete answer to this question would make much more interesting reading for the public than Mr. Ryan's published statement, although it might not afford him so much satisfaction to prepare. Mr. Ryan's answer to the second charge may avail to defend "insiders" against the accusation of having made personal profit directly from the construction of new lines, but it certainly reveals, as we have shown above, that the stock capitalization of certain of the subordinate lines consisted not "chiefly" but entirely of "water." His explanation of the third charge is sustained by the evidence brought out before the Grand Jury. The payments of one hundred and eleven thousand dollars each to five men were made for the purpose of returning advances made by those men. But this explanation, while it may clear the skirts of the gentlemen who advanced the money, does not in the slightest degree explain what the money was originally spent for. The fact remains that five hundred and sixty-five thousand dollars went out of the treasury of the Metropolitan, ostensibly for the purchase of a road whose only assets were a charter and an injunction forbidding that charter to be used, but actually for some purpose unknown. It has been suggested that the money was probably used for political contributions, but Mr. Whitney, who spent the money, is dead, and all the survivors who had anything to do with the transaction are most marvelously ignorant of its details.

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The System Throttled

Mr. Ryan's attempt to ascribe the failure of the surface lines to outside causes also repays examination. His causes are four:

1. Universal free transfers. But if this condition were to influence the finances of the system, it would show its effect in the proportion of annual operating expenses to annual gross earnings. This ratio was 54 per cent in 1897, and in 1906 it had increased only to 57 per cent, an increase which needs no other explanation than the increased cost of labor and materials during the period in question.

2. Increase in taxation, especially the franchise tax. But the Metropolitan has never paid its franchise taxes, which are still the subject of litigation.

3. Congestion of traffic, resulting in $2,000,000 of accident claims a year. But it has been shown that a great part of the congestion is directly due to the crippled condition of much of the Metropolitan's rolling stock. A large proportion of the accidents, which cost $2,000,000 a year, could be avoided by the adoption of adequate fenders or wheel-guards. The city of Liverpool has in use a wheel-guard which has a record of having pushed over four hundred persons off the track without injury and of having permitted not one to be run over. This wheel-guard is the invention of the municipal engineers and is unpatented. It could be installed on all the surface cars in New York for not over $600,000. It is estimated by experts that its adoption would reduce the accident claims by one-half. The expenditure, then, once for all, of a sum equal to one-third of the annual accident bill of

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the Metropolitan would cut down that bill one-half every year. It is claimed, however, that this wheel-guard cannot be used on the New York lines because the pavement between the rails is too rough. But the railway company is responsible for that pavement; if it is rough, it has only itself to blame.

4. Competition. Doubtless the subway has taken some passengers from the surface roads. But the finding of the Public Service Commission that practically none of the surface lines parallel to the subway were running enough cars, and the plea of the company that it could not run enough cars to take care of the traffic, would not seem to indicate that the loss from this cause was of dangerous proportions.

Against Mr. Ryan's four causes we would set a single fact. Between 1898 and 1906 the Metropolitan's annual net earnings increased 102 per cent; its annual fixed charges increased 250 per cent. We are glad to accept Mr. Ryan's phrase. The gigantic millstone, in the shape of liabilities aggregating $234,000,000, which Mr. Ryan and his associates have hung about the neck of the Metropolitan, have "throttled" it.

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Federal Compensation to Workmen

This session of Congress, having passed a bill for railway employers' liability—with only one dissenting vote in both houses—has now before it a Federal workmen's compensation law. The liability law was made to apply merely to inter-State common carriers by railway; compensation is designed to apply to Federal employees solely. There is a difference in principle between the two things: The liability law *inflicts a penalty* when the employer is in any degree negligent or culpable; in the compensation bill the employer—namely, the Government—volunteers to offer recompense for injury incurred by the employee. In February of this year John A. Sterling, of Illinois, whose liability bill was recently enacted into law, introduced the most comprehensive bill so far proposed. Briefly, the Sterling Bill, "to compensate civilian government employees for personal injury in service," provides for compensation of such employees in the United States and the various operations connected with the Panama Canal, except where injuries are due to serious and willful misconduct. The first thirty days are not included, and only employees earning $2,500 or less a year are affected. In case of death, if relatives wholly dependent are left, a sum is to be awarded equal to earnings of five years previous, not less than $2,000 nor more than $10,000, or, in case of a shorter term of employment, calculated on the basis of average annual wages. If there are relatives partially dependent, the compensation is a sum not exceeding two years' wages nor more than $1,800. The Secretary of Commerce and Labor is to determine both the degree of dependence and the proportion payable to each dependent. If there are no dependents, however, then reasonable medical attendance and burial expenses, not exceeding $150, are provided for. If the victim is incapacitated for work, then sixty per cent of earnings each month, not to exceed $50 a month, is granted. If the incapacity should exceed one year, the Secretary shall cause an examination to be made, and if the incapacity proves permanent, a sum ten times the annual amount payable to the employee shall be paid. Whenever such an accident (that is, death or incapacity) occurs in any Department of the Government, it must be reported to the head of the Department and thence to the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. In case of death an affidavit must be filed by the persons entitled to compensation within ninety days, and in case of incapacity by the employee in thirty days. The Secretary determines compensation, may increase or diminish it or discontinue it. Fraudulence is declared a misdemeanor, payments are not to be subject to claims of creditors, it is provided that no other acts shall conflict with this, and this act is to go into effect, if passed, July 1, 1908. Congress is asked to appropriate a sum yet to be determined to make the act effective. Strictly speaking, this is only a loose form of compensation, or rather a very broad form of liability. It is not as scientific as the British

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Compensation Act of 1897; indeed, it is totally different from any of the acts of the twenty-one countries which have enacted compensation laws. It indicates one thing, however—compensation will have, undoubtedly, a very different evolution with us. Perhaps in this tentative bill too great judicial power is given the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. Moreover, there should be a more precise definition of the classes of accidents covered. But the bill in its present shape is not final, and the criticisms of it are little more than suggestions.

❀

Reclamation's New Plans

With the opening of spring increased progress has been made on the Government's vast Reclamation Service plans in the West. Few realize how extensive are these undertakings or how important they are to the home-seeker. The work as a whole rivals the Panama Canal in the labor and expense involved. The employment of 16,000 men and the expenditure of $1,250,000 every month are but incidents in the service. Already the canals completed reach a total of 1,815 miles—as far as from New York to Denver. Homes have been made for ten thousand families where before was desert. In the past five years $33,000,000 has been spent, and the enterprises already planned will add more than a hundred millions to this sum. Nor is this money spent in one locality. In New Mexico one of the largest dams in the world is being constructed. In California and Nevada great reservoirs and irrigation plants are being built. In western Kansas the beet-sugar raisers are to have a $250,000 plant for pumping the "underflow," or the sheet water found a few feet beneath the top-soil, of the Arkansas River Valley to the surface, that ditches may be filled and crops made certain. On seven great projects, involving the expenditure of $51,000,000 and the reclamation of over a million acres, the benefit is directly to the Northwest. These projects lie in North and South Dakota, Montana, and Washington. In these States lands that have been considered as worthless except for the coarsest kind of grazing are being transformed into productive farms. In South Dakota the largest earth dam in the world is being constructed, that ninety thousand acres of land may be made fertile; while just east of the Yellowstone Park is being built a solid wall of masonry 310 feet high to hold back the waters of the Shoshone River until a reservoir of ten square miles, capable of irrigating a hundred thousand acres, is formed. The production of these irrigated lands is marvelous. In the Grand River Valley of Colorado a tract of 160 acres supports fifteen families, with a total of eighty persons. In a single season this land produced $48,000 worth of peaches from trees three to seven years old. Another quarter-section, half of which is in grain and the remainder in fruit, has for several years produced $30,000 a year. This dense population brings with it definite social advantages. In this valley, of the fourteen school districts all but one have two or more teachers each; a perfect telephone system, rural mail service, and good roads make it more like suburban territory than a country section. Nor is the service of reclamation confined to putting water on the land; it is also devoted to taking surplus water off the soil. Recent surveys have shown that in a northern Minnesota district 400,000 acres of swamp-land can be reclaimed through drainage at a cost of less than $5 an acre. When this is done, it will be worth $50 to $100 an acre. This is a part of the work to be done during the coming season.

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Home-Making on the Desert

The direct influence of this immense service in the interest of better fertility and of larger income is not all of the benefit it is conferring upon the Nation. The fact that homesteads are practically exhausted, that Uncle Sam is no longer "rich enough to give us all a farm," has seemed to thousands to close the door of opportunity. Rising land values preclude the poor man from getting a productive farm with the ease of former years. Even out on the prairies, two hundred miles west of the Missouri River, in

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unirrigated sections, farms are selling for seventy-five to one hundred dollars an acre—more than is asked for much of the land within a two hours' ride from New York City. The Canadian Northwest has taken tens of thousands of the restless settlers who have "moved on," giving place to immigration from States farther east. The opening of the door to the arid lands by making them fertile with the best kind of fertility has been received with rejoicing by the most capable of this class of home-seekers. Those who are taking up these reclaimed lands, and who will in the end repay the Government for the expenditures thereon, are farmers of ability and energy. Generally they have succeeded in their former homes, and are familiar with the tasks involved in transforming virgin prairie into well-tilled farms. No private enterprise could undertake the vast plans being carried on by the Government, at least not without demanding tremendous capital and a profit beyond the income of the average farmer. For instance, the service has excavated forty-seven tunnels, with a total length of eleven miles. Among its accomplishments are 94 large structures, 675 headworks, flumes, etc.; it has built 375 miles of wagon road in mountainous country, has 727 miles of telephone lines, has manufactured in its own mill seventy thousand barrels of cement, and in its own sawmills has cut over three million feet of lumber. All this indicates a work of the first magnitude. It will be returned many fold to the Nation in the greater prosperity that will come to those who take advantage of the opportunity. All these enterprises are to be repaid out of the products of the farms benefited; then the fund so created is to go on developing more power and bringing into subjection more reaches of desert. The West at first looked upon the work as a somewhat visionary scheme of college-bred engineers rather than the planning of "practical" farm-makers. But now the West is enthusiastically heralding every project and is begging for greater effort. Altogether, the undertaking is accomplishing all it intended, and has both educational and economic justification.

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, late British Prime Minister, died in London on Wednesday of last week. His formal resignation from office was so recently announced that it is unnecessary to repeat the facts of his life, at that time in various forms widely published. The Outlook has already expressed its judgment of his character and career. His success was a triumph of character rather than of genius; but it was character reinforced by three or four fundamental qualities—unusual common sense, courage, courtesy, and persistence; to which must be added, as a prime element in his career, the companionship, devotion, and inspiration of a wife of rare ability and loveliness. Her death was really a fatal blow to her husband. With her something passed out of his life which reduced his vitality and weakened his hold upon the things of this world. His incorruptible integrity, stanch devotion, and stainless life constituted—as they must always constitute in an English-speaking community—a substantial and enduring claim upon public confidence and regard. For many months after his acceptance of the Premiership Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was tolerated rather than acknowledged as a leader. He was accepted as a kind of compromise representative of Liberalism rather than as a man marked by genius and achievement for the leadership of the party; but his quiet persistence, remarkable skill in keeping the diverse and antagonistic sections of his party together, uniform courtesy, and kindliness of spirit, won first the respect and then the affection of the House of Commons. He became and he remained "C-B"—a pseudonym expressive of affectionate familiarity with a man who did not overpower, but who led with ability and with kindness. He wore a silken glove, but he had an iron hand; for he had the great Scotch qualities of tenacity of purpose and firmness of character combined with rare kindliness and humor. The mere fact that he kept his party together demonstrated the quiet force of the man; and the fact that he brought into his Ministry two men like Mr. Lloyd-George, who was a

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solicitor in a small Welsh town, and Mr. John Burns, who wore a bowler hat and a serge suit in the House of Commons, thus quietly disregarding one of its most respected traditions, showed that he judged men for himself without regard to their station, and that he had the courage to recognize a man when he found him.

❀

His Qualities The ex-Prime Minister really died at his post. If he had been willing to accede to the pressure brought to bear on him when he accepted the Premiership, and taken a title and gone into the House of Lords, he would probably have still been living; but his own inclination, his fighting blood, and the wishes of his wife kept him on the firing line in the House of Commons—a Chamber of which he had learned all the secrets and with which he dealt, in all its vagaries, with unfailing good nature and unbroken repose of manner. He was a well-read man, an excellent classical scholar, a story-teller of genius, and he had the gift of quick and witty retort. He once said that he had never had any desire for the positions he had been called upon to occupy; that he was put into them by force of circumstances, and that he had always said, "Please God, I will do my best." The King, who was in Copenhagen when notified of the death of his ex-Prime Minister, summed up his life and the public judgment of him in a single phrase, "He was the faithful servant of his country." General Botha, Premier of the Transvaal, telegraphed: "The Empire loses one of its wisest statesmen and the Transvaal one of its truest friends. In securing self-government for the new colonies he raised an imperishable monument to himself and laid the foundation of a united South Africa." It was his wish that the recognition of his death should be as quiet as possible, which was characteristic of the man; but the country would not have been satisfied without a public service in Westminster Abbey. The burial, in Perthshire, beside the grave of the brilliant and faithful wife, fulfills his own wish. Such men as Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman have made English history, not because they have continued the tradition of English genius in public life, but because they have sustained the tradition of English rectitude, courage, and efficiency.

❀

A Signal Defeat The Ministry of Mr. Asquith has met at the very outset with a serious defeat in the loss of the seat for Northwest Manchester, where Mr. Winston Churchill, who recently entered the Cabinet as President of the Board of Trade, was defeated by Mr. Joynson-Hicks, Conservative, by a vote of 5,417 to 4,988. This election had been accepted by both parties as a test, and the ground was fought over desperately, foot by foot. Meetings were held half a dozen times daily in all parts of the district, and the town was full of leading speakers on both sides. Mr. Churchill had every possible advantage. He is a young man; he is vivacious and daring; he stood for the free trade idea in a Cobden stronghold; he had the prestige of Cabinet rank and the backing of many of the ablest leaders of his party. But, in spite of the most tremendous efforts to secure success, the Conservatives have captured the city by a majority of 1,019. Although the excitement was great, the election was carried out with entire good humor; but so intense was the joy of the Conservatives that those who were present declared that the celebration after the announcement of the election exceeded anything they had ever seen before in the way of public rejoicing. It is too early to estimate the exact significance of this signal victory; but, coming as it does close on the heels of a number of Conservative triumphs, centering about one of the deeply interesting figures in English public life, and being the first expression of the popular will after the organization of the new Ministry, the Liberals do not attempt to minimize its very serious consequences. One of the Radical London papers declares that it is "an absolutely disastrous blow to free trade," that "the great cause with which the name of Manchester used to be associated is injured—perhaps lost." On the other hand, another Radical paper, the Daily News, declares that the

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victory was won by the combined and tremendous efforts of the liquor trade, and was not a victory for protection. Mr. Churchill has borne himself with extraordinary courage, audacity, and good sense, and is taking his defeat gallantly. Of course there will be no trouble in finding a seat for him.

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American Schools Abroad

The Outlook recently called attention to the work accomplished by Japanese students in America. Americans naturally feel a special interest in such a record because our own record of institutions of learning abroad has become recently remarkably satisfying. Not only are we educating over half a million pupils in the Philippine schools; another half-million pupils are members of American schools in other parts of the world. As was shown in a recent interesting article on the subject in The World's Work, these schools are mostly under religious auspices. In their primary and high schools and academies in Japan, for instance, the Methodists are educating nearly five thousand pupils, and the Episcopalians about seventeen hundred. The Doshisha at Kyoto, allied with the Congregational Mission, is one of the institutions of highest grade within the Empire; it has already given instruction to over five thousand students. Kobe College for women is also a Congregational institution; it has done much to raise the status of women throughout Japan. In Tokyo, the capital, the Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and Methodists maintain important colleges. In Korea the Presbyterians have the strongest representation of any religious denomination, with over three hundred schools; and, what is still more striking, practically every one of these schools is self-supporting. The Methodists follow with over a hundred schools and over forty-two hundred pupils. The Methodists lead in China, however, with ten thousand pupils, followed by the Presbyterians with nearly seven thousand, the Congregationalists with over four thousand, and the Episcopalians with about twenty-six hundred. The highest Episcopal, Presbyterian, and Methodist colleges in China are practically universities in their curricula, comparing favorably with our leading home institutions. The well-known St. John's University, Shanghai (Episcopal), an institution whose half-century of work has been vital in the making of New China, is now incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia, and is empowered to grant degrees in arts, science, medicine, and theology. Peking University (Methodist) is incorporated under the laws of New York, and has as large an annual enrollment of students as Williams or Amherst. In Malaysia the Methodists are educating over five thousand students. In Siam the Presbyterians are so strong that the name of their college at Chiengmai has, at the Crown Prince's suggestion, been changed to the Prince Royal College. Both the King and his son have been liberal contributors to this institution.

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Surprising Statistics

Increasing interest is now being concentrated on Burma and India, where an illiterate population seems to need far more education than has yet been provided by Great Britain. In Burma the Baptists play the leading rôle, educating no less than twenty-four thousand pupils. In India, however, the Methodists lead, with a record of over thirty-seven thousand pupils. They have two colleges at Lucknow. The Baptists have a college at Ongole, and have about fifteen thousand pupils in their schools. The Congregationalists have a college at Madura, and have also about fifteen thousand pupils in India, added to their total of ten thousand in Ceylon. The Presbyterians have a college at Lahore and one at Allahabad, and are educating about ten thousand pupils in the Empire. As in Korea, so in Persia the Presbyterians are the strongest denominational force. Besides Urumia College, they have about a hundred and twenty-five schools throughout the country. In the Turkish Empire the principal American institutions are, first of all, the undenominational Robert College at Constantinople, founded by Dr. Cyrus Hamlin, of the American Board (Congregational), with

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funds supplied by Christopher Robert, the New York merchant. It has been the leader of education for Bulgaria as well as Turkey; two of the delegates from Bulgaria to the Hague Conference were its graduates. Another interesting American institution at the Turkish capital is the American College for Girls. A recent graduate of it has been the only Mohammedan woman in the Empire to obtain the degree of Bachelor of Arts. At Beirut is the Syrian Protestant College, under Presbyterian control, one of the most enlightened institutions abroad. Euphrates College at Harput in Asia Minor, with a thousand students, is a Congregational institution. At Tarsus, the Apostle Paul's home, is, appropriately enough, St. Paul's Institute. Throughout Turkey the Congregationalists have over four hundred schools, with over twenty-one thousand pupils. In Syria the Presbyterians maintain about a hundred schools. The Presbyterians (North) have no work in Egypt, but the United Presbyterians are educating there no less than fifteen thousand pupils, a total the more surprising when we recall that the Government schools in Egypt have only eighteen thousand pupils. More than four thousand have received instruction at Assiut College, the center of the United Presbyterian work. In the rest of Africa the Baptists take the lead, educating eight thousand pupils. The Congregationalists follow with six thousand students. Then come the Methodists with four thousand pupils. In South America and Mexico, however, the Methodists excel, educating over thirty-six hundred and over four thousand pupils in those respective fields. Altogether the survey is one which must hearten every lover of education and every lover of religion alike.

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Compulsory German in the German Provinces

The German Reichstag has recently passed radical legislation on the language question by enacting that all speeches at public meetings, except those at elections, international congresses, and at meetings held by special permission in places where sixty per cent of the people do not speak the German language, shall be delivered in German. This measure is taken for the purpose of promoting the nationalization of the country, and with special reference to the provinces, where, among large groups of aliens in race, it will prevent the preaching of anti-German doctrines and will forward the Germanization of these provinces. This is in line with the recent legislation in regard to Russian Poland, by the terms of which landed property may be expropriated by compulsion. The importance and convenience of having a common language spoken by a people under a common government are obvious, and this end may be legitimately pursued; but it is very doubtful whether the attempt to impose a language on an alien people arbitrarily by law will do anything more in the long run than intensify racial feeling and awaken racial discontent. Several languages are spoken in various parts of Germany: Polish in the east, Danish at the north in Schleswig, and French at the south in Alsace-Lorraine. Historically there have been but two successful ways of dealing with a conquered people so as to secure unity and peace: to exterminate or exile them; to win them gradually by accustoming them to a foreign language, foreign system of laws, and foreign civilization. The latter result has been secured more than once, but it requires time and patience. Europe is already familiar in the Austrian Empire with the bitterness and violence with which conflicts between different languages can be carried on. There is no reason to believe that Germany will succeed in allaying the animosity which an attempt to suppress a language invariably evokes.

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The Methodist Church and Amusements

In the Book of Discipline of the Methodist Episcopal Church the paragraph numbered 248 prescribes the mode of dealing with members of the Church convicted of certain specified acts. Among these acts for which a member of the Church makes himself liable to reproof and, in case of persistency, expulsion are these amuse-

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ments: "dancing, playing at games of chance, attending theaters, horse races, circuses, dancing parties, or patronizing dancing schools." Recently two annual Conferences (of New York and New England) have adopted resolutions petitioning the General Conference to eliminate this paragraph from the Discipline. These memorials are neither revolutionary nor unprecedented. They do not strike at any long-established tradition or foundation of the Church. The provision in question was enacted as late as 1872. Before that date the Church legislation concerning amusements was wisely general. It embodied not specific rules but a principle. It was expressed tersely in the Constitution of the Church by the statement that members of the Church are expected "to evidence their desire of salvation by avoiding evil of every kind . . . such as . . . doing what we know is not for the glory of God, as: . . . the taking such diversions as cannot be used in the name of the Lord Jesus, . . . softness and needless self-indulgence." The Special Advices of the Church, it is true, warn against "theater-going, dancing, and such games of chance as are frequently associated with gambling;" but they attach no penalty to them. It is worth adding, perhaps, that a search into an abridgment of John Wesley's Journal has revealed to us no attempt on his part to select any special form of amusement for condemnation, unless it be cock-fighting, and that only in a specific instance. For some time there has been in the Methodist Church the feeling among many leaders that it is the duty of the Church, not to set forth minute rules of conduct, but to maintain principles of life that are none the less unchangeable because their effects in varying circumstances are not always uniform. They believe that it is the principle in the Constitution rather than the rule numbered 248 that best expresses the spirit of Christianity. In 1900 there was a vigorous discussion on the subject, which ended in a vote that showed that this opinion was largely held within the denomination. It was at that time that a member of the General Conference, in order to reduce to an absurdity the minute regulation of conduct attempted in the paragraph under discussion, moved to amend it by adding to the condemned list of amusements the following:

> Opera, grand opera, living pictures, tableaux, charades, prize fights, bull fights, dog fights, cock fights, yachting, roller-skating, football, baseball, curling, and playing the following games: Backgammon, billiards, checkers, chess, dice, croquet, polo, pool, golf, lawn tennis, cricket, one o' cat, two o' cat, shinney, la crosse, old sow, pillow, Denmark, blindman's buff, prison goal, tug-of-war, crokinole, matadore, raffling, crap-shooting, pitching quoits, archery, tenpins, shuffleboard, bicycling, grab bags, basket-ball, houseball, handup, baltie collie, crackabout, over the barn, house over or hally over, corner-ball, black baby, marbles, game of authors, and that dangerous game of chance of casting lots for seats of General Conference delegates.

In this matter, as in other matters, we believe the practice of the Church is sound when it follows the practice of Christ. He gave to his disciples, not a set of rules to supplant the Levitical code, but an impulse and power, and then let his disciples exercise their judgment and their will in applying that great motive power to the exigencies of life.

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Secretary Taft and Christian Missions

The participation of President McKinley and ex-President Harrison in the Ecumenical Missionary Conference at Carnegie Hall in 1900 was vividly recalled by the part taken on the same platform in the same cause, April 20, by Mr. Taft, felicitously introduced to the great assembly as "our Secretary of War and Ambassador of Peace," and received with an enthusiastic greeting. Mr. Taft said he had known "good men who religiously refused to contribute to foreign missions." In his earlier days of "smug provincialism" he had sympathized with them, but when he went to the Orient he had realized the immense importance of foreign missions. "We have got to wake up," said he. "Christianity and its spread are the only basis for our hope of modern civilization. The spirit of Christianity makes for pure democracy." Saying that the religious point of view had been adequately presented, he took the political—"the uplifting of peoples dependent

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on us." In the time of Philip II of Spain the proselyting of the Filipinos to Mohammedanism had been prevented by the coming of Catholic friars, to whom it was due that the Filipinos were now the only Christian people in Asia. "Their ideals are western and Christian, and they are good material to make in two or three generations a self-governing people. Not so the Mohammedans there; they will never understand popular government till converted. As to our business in the Philippines, our business to help unfortunate people, it is said there is nothing in the Constitution to permit it. Well, there's nothing in the Constitution to forbid it"—a remark vigorously applauded, and clinched by reference to our war for the liberation of Cuba. Mr. Taft said that every man, whether Catholic or Protestant, should hope for the prosperity of the Catholic Church in the Philippines, which he expected would always hold the majority of the people. The Protestant missions were doing good work, and would spur the Catholics to emulate them. "I am talking practical facts," said he, "of the effect of religion on civil government. The Catholic Church upheld the hands of the Governor." Mr. Taft then spoke of China. He denied that the Boxer outbreak was at all provoked by "meddling missionaries." Christian missions were "the nucleus of modern civilization for China in this epoch of transition. Their occupancy of the frontier posts of civilization is a more important fact than the number of their converts." Missionaries write the most reliable books on China. Our Ambassadors depend on them for helpful information. They, and not the agents of trade, are the true representatives of our country in the Orient. Mr. John L. Mott, who presided that evening, quoted the remark of a Chinese official that Mr. Taft had "done more than any other man to nationalize the work of the Young Men's Christian Association in China." The Laymen's Missionary Movement—the general theme of the evening—an interdenominational and international movement among English-speaking peoples, was represented in its religious aspects by Dr. Capen, President of the American Board, Mr. Silas McBee, editor of The Churchman, and Secretary J. Campbell White. Its success in kindling a long dormant interest and unlocking hearts and coffers in many cities is auspicious of great results. "It roots," said Mr. McBee, "in conviction of the unity of Christ's kingdom and the liberty of the children of God."

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Chinese Christianity

Western China has been setting a good example to the western world. About as far west from Shanghai as Detroit from Boston is Chentu, as large as Boston, and the central city of a region inhabited by sixty million people. Here a missionary conference was held last January, which paralleled and in one point surpassed the great conference at Shanghai last spring. The advanced step was taken in the unanimous resolve that "This Conference adopts as its ideal one Protestant Christian Church for West China." A hundred and fifty missionaries, representing nine different societies at work in various parts of that populous region, concurred in this. They also proceeded to make a practical beginning by resolving that their various churches should receive each other's members by transfer. Episcopalians, Quakers, Baptists, and Methodists readily agreed to this. Then a standing committee of two from each mission was appointed on ways and means of promoting the ideal set forth by the Conference. The only apprehension expressed was that the denominational Boards in the home countries might obstruct the movement, as has occasionally happened. In educational work union is already accomplished; one printing establishment serves all the missionaries; a union hymnal has been in use for years. Now a union university is planned, land for which has been secured at Chentu, and contributions have been and are being made for the missionary colleges to be included in it. The British missionary who reports the facts says that "West China in these movements is ahead of all the rest of China." It seems to be also in the lead of some countries called Christian.

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Comfort for the Aged

Men and women over forty, who were discouraged by Dr. Osler's alleged pessimistic view of their usefulness, will be greatly comforted by an article on "The Age of Mental Virility" in the April issue of the Century Magazine. The writer of the article, Mr. W. A. Newman Dorland, has taken the subject into the biographical and historical laboratory room, and has gone at his work with scientific thoroughness. This involved the investigation of the record of more than four hundred celebrated men. From the mass of information which he has collected, it appears that "the age at which the man first began to manifest mental activity in the line or lines in which he subsequently became famous" was twenty-four. Musical composers appear to take the earliest start, for they begin on an average of about seventeen, while humorists and satirists do not embark on their work until about twenty-two. The golden age for the perfection of masterpieces appears for chemists and physicians at forty-one, for naturalists and jurists at fifty-eight; but a great many of the most important creative works have been done by men beyond sixty. Men now in maturity have not forgotten that the leaders of the age in which they grew up were nearly all venerable. Europe was for years in the hands of octogenarians, like Pope Leo XIII, Cavour, Bismarck, Disraeli, Gladstone, Gortschakoff. Tennyson and Browning lived to a great age and did notable work to the very end; while to-day, among the foremost figures in literature, Swinburne, Björnson, Tolstoy, Meredith, Mistral, are the special inspirers and leaders of young men. Ibsen was sixty-four when he wrote "The Master Builder." Dr. Weir Mitchell has written a new chapter in his own remarkable development and has gained a wide literary reputation since his sixty-fifth birthday. As a matter of fact, age seems to be necessary to round out a career by certain qualities of ripeness, repose, clearness of vision, and spiritual beauty which are distilled by the flight of time, and which no energy of youthful genius or ambition of immature energy can accomplish.

Government by Oligarchy

The legislative duel during recent weeks between Mr. Williams, Democratic leader, and Mr. Cannon, Speaker of the House, arouses but languid interest among the people. Whether Mr. Williams or Mr. Cannon has always been technically right is a matter of small consequence. What is of consequence is the fact illustrated, that a Republican Speaker is able to block legislation demanded by a Republican administration and enforced by the practically unanimous opinion of the Republican party throughout the country. This is what we mean by government by oligarchy.

The House, with its membership of 391, is too much a mass-meeting to transact business unless that business has been first properly prepared for its consideration. For this purpose committees are organized, to which all measures introduced are referred, as matter of course, for preliminary consideration. The Speaker of the House appoints all the committees; he determines to what committee each measure as it is introduced shall be referred; the committee may report or not as it pleases upon the matter thus referred to it. Thus it is possible for the Speaker, foreseeing the legislation likely to come before the House during an approaching season, to appoint a committee certain to be hostile to it, and to refer the proposed measure to that committee so that it may be smothered without public debate. By the power thus lodged in the Speaker's hands it is possible for him not only to prevent the passage of any measure but to stifle Congressional debate upon it if he chooses so to do. A concrete case will best illustrate to the general reader how this method works.

The Appalachian-White Mountain Bill, a measure for the preservation of certain of our great forests in the East, has been repeatedly recommended by the President in Messages to Congress, was passed without dissent by the Senate of the United States, and was unanimously recommended by the Committee on Agriculture of the Fifty-ninth Congress,

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The Speaker is, for some reason, opposed to this measure. Under his influence it has been referred, in the present Congress, by the new Committee on Agriculture, which he has appointed, to the Committee on Judiciary, which he has also appointed. The avowed object of this reference was to secure an opinion on its constitutionality. The majority of the Judiciary Committee were supposed to be strict constructionists, and it was believed that they could be counted on to believe any measure unconstitutional if any possible objection to its constitutionality could be presented. Such objections were found, and an unfavorable report has been made. Thus a bill urged by a Republican administration, supported by the Republican press throughout the country, and unquestionably having the sanction of an overwhelming majority of the citizens of the United States, whether Republicans or Democrats, is for the time defeated by the Republican Speaker and a small minority in the Republican House of Representatives. Nor is this all. The House of Representatives is not even permitted to consider the question whether it is constitutional and whether it is wise. The whole question is foreclosed by the Speaker and a committee which he has appointed and to which he has submitted it for decision. This is not party government; it is government by oligarchy; that is, by "a form of government in which supreme power is restricted to a few persons." A few persons in the House of Representatives are able to overrule the Senate of the United States, a probable majority of the House of Representatives, an unquestionable majority of the people of the United States, and the official judgment of its selected leaders possessing expert knowledge on the subject both within and without the House.

For this condition of things which now confronts us there are two remedies: one is radical, but probably impracticable; the other is simple and ought to be adopted by all American legislative assemblies.

The first would be converting the office of the Speaker of the House from a partisan to a judicial office. In the English House of Commons the Speaker is a non-partisan officer, elected by a non-partisan vote, retaining his office unchanged through varying administrations, and expected to be as judicial in his temper as a judge upon the King's Bench. In the House of Representatives he is a partisan leader, elected by a partisan majority, for the purpose of promoting partisan interest. It is not perhaps strange that he becomes a factional leader, elected by a factional party, and using his power to promote factional interests. To make the Speaker a judicial officer, with no other interest than to promote the orderly administration of the business of the House, is the radical but probably impracticable remedy for the present condition. The other remedy would be to give a minority of the House, say ten per cent of its membership, the right to demand a vote from the House on the question whether any pending measure should not be reported by the committee, after a reasonable time for consideration, to the House for its adjudication. This plan, which has been advocated by Mr. Everett Colby, of New Jersey, would go far toward destroying the present power of oligarchy in our legislative assemblies. Even so simple a measure as this will probably not be adopted unless the American people, impatient of oligarchical control, compel its adoption by an irresistible power of awakened public opinion.

It is not necessary for us to consider the motives which actuate Mr. Cannon in his obstructive tactics except to say that no one suspects him of corrupt motives. It may be that he is actuated by personal hostility to President Roosevelt, and therefore to all of the President's policies; or that he entertains the provincial view of a Representative who does not look beyond the borders of his prairie State in his consideration of National interests; or that he is controlled by economic considerations, and afraid of National appropriations even to preserve the National welfare; or that he is consistently opposed to all legislation, and counts that legislative day the best in which nothing is done; or that he believes the proposed measure for the purchase of the White Mountain and

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Appalachian reservation is unconstitutional. His motive is immaterial. It may even be that he is right in thinking the legislation inexpedient, extravagant, or even unconstitutional. That also is immaterial. The fundamental question is not, Is this bill wise? but, Have the American people, through their properly constituted representatives, a right to pass upon its wisdom? The Outlook protests against substituting government by oligarchy, however wise it may be, for government by the people, however unwise they may be.

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Concerning Lovable Heroines

A great deal of the pleasure of reading novels is the opportunity of falling in love with a series of charming heroines. The young man who has not gone through this delightful experience has an anæmic imagination or is a mere plodder in the dusty ways of work. Who can forget the enthralling interest of the stories read under the morning sky of youth, when all manner of gracious and beautiful presences seemed to be waiting in the near and golden future! In those days it was an event to read "Jane Eyre," not because you lost your heart to the little governess, but because such tremendous things happened and life brimmed with excitement. Mr. Rochester came and went like an Afrite in an "Arabian Nights" tale, and his wickedness was so obviously effective for stage effects that you got the shudder of crime without the feeling of moral depravity.

In those ardent days you gave the novelist something which he craves but does not always receive: the ardor of imagination which gives his work a glow and enchantment half your own. Fortunate is the writer who gains the suffrages of youth; they read into his book their own quick thought and generous idealism, and become his ardent advocates and loyal friends for life. How many middle-aged men think of Donald G. Mitchell with constant affection because "The Reveries of a Bachelor" and "Dream Life" lay on the table of their rooms in college and were textbooks of young romance!

You did not fall in love with Shakespeare's women because they were a little beyond the reach of your immature fancy; it was later that you discovered what enchanting creatures of pure instinct, undisturbed by self-consciousness, they were; what radiant embodiments of pure femininity; the very soul of what is distinctively womanly. They did not go to college nor organize philanthropies nor spend their days in doing good, yet Solomon in all his glory was a shabby creature compared with them. With Rosalind, Imogen, and Perdita you are now, if you are worth your salt, in love for life, and your wife finds you a much more interesting person in consequence.

Mr. Lang, like all Scotchmen of imagination, has been coquetting with Mary Stuart; a most dangerous person in the flesh, as Mr. Hewlett has graphically shown, and a most perplexing one out of it. There is very little harm, however, in a well-seasoned man of letters devoting himself to a lady whose portrait has been painted in so many different ways that no one knows what she looked like. With Mr. Saintsbury, who is as industrious as Mr. Lang and far more serious, there might be room for anxiety on reading his confession, if his philandering were not so comprehensive. There is no occasion for worry when a man frankly declares that he has five distinct love affairs on his hands at the same time. Mr. Saintsbury did not say in so many words that he was in love with these ladies, but he described them as persons with whom most men would fall in love; which is only a delicate way of telling the truth about himself without making a scandal. These ladies are all heroines in well-known novels: Elizabeth Bennet in "Pride and Prejudice," Di Vernon in "Rob Roy," Beatrix Esmond in "Henry Esmond," Barbara Grant in "David Balfour," and Argemone Lavington in "Yeast."

This selection shows catholicity and courage. It would be easy to live with Elizabeth Bennet, one of the most lovable and refreshing of heroines, whose warm heart, clear head, and unfailing humor make her a capital adviser as well as an

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adorable human creature; but to love Di Vernon is a perilous privilege, and the man who aspires to it must hold himself ready for daring adventures. Beatrix Esmond in her youth is a magnificent picture of pride, willfulness, and splendid recklessness, and in her age an old and hardened worldling; one might fall in love with her mother, as Henry Esmond did, and live a life of self denying loyalty, but Beatrix, in the perspective of her entire history, is surely not a person to run away with one's affections as she tried to run away with the Pretender. Barbara Grant is as different from Beatrix as a bunch of wild flowers is from a splendid bouquet from a hot-house. No man of heart would hesitate a moment to elope to Holland with her if she needed companionship. Argemone Lavington suffers from her name and from the fact that she belongs to a forgotten novel—misfortunes which weigh heavily against her chances of long-continued adoration. She is a woman of a fine texture even if she "rolled at her mother's feet with bitter tears." One wonders, however, how Mr. Saintsbury passed by Mary Armsworth in "Two Years Ago," who has broken and mended many young hearts.

This is a very brief list in a very large field, for fiction is full of charming figures. One wonders, with a little distrust of his later and cooler judgment, whether the fiction of the day is as rich in lovable women as that of a generation ago. Where are the successors of Ethel Newcome and Laura Pendennis, of Agnes Copperfield and Peg Woffington?—for Peg was a lovable creature in spite of her naughtiness. There are great, sorrowful, tragical heroines to-day, but are there as many lovable women? Anna Karénina, Sonia, Lily Bart, are types of frustrated nobility; Mr. Hardy's women are too elemental, as the Germans would say; Mr. Meredith has come very near success in two or three of his heroines; Mr. James's women are too complicated and Mr. Howells's women too light-minded to captivate the imagination. Mr. Crawford's Princess Saracinesca is a glorious creature, and Mr. Hewlett knows how to fashion a full-hearted woman. Mr. Harland's heroine—she has various names but she is one—is captivating if one will make room for a pretty pastoral in the hurry of life. D'Annunzio's women are out of the question, and so are the women in recent German fiction; in one way or another they have all thrown their bonnets over the moon, to quote Mr. Lang. We cannot be too grateful for Sally in "Somehow Good," and Alice and Peggy in "Alice-for-Short." Mr. De Morgan does not fall into the mistake of thinking that the chief use of a woman is to illustrate a psychological reform. Women in recent fiction are apt to be wholly frivolous, with an assumed liking for cigarettes; or human creatures who are hurling themselves blindly against immutable laws and breaking their hearts in a reckless endeavor to escape the limitations of life; or ardent souls so bent on doing good that the savor of femininity, which is a large part of the poetry of life, has gone out of them. They suffer from excessive development on one side of life; they are examples, types, victims, rebels; they are rarely simply and beautifully human, with the adorable freshness of fundamental femininity flowing out of them as spring rises from the soil and descends from the skies in these days of early bloom. The world is full of such women, but the novelists miss them.

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The Training of Parents

In a modern play the hero, fleeing from unjust justice, finds an automobilist repairing his machine and asks to be taken with him. "Do you know anything about an automobile?" asks the owner. "Not a thing." "Then you'll do for a chauffeur; come along." It is upon this principle that the responsibilities of parenthood are very generally assumed. It is not supposed to be necessary that either the father or mother should know anything of the delicate physical and moral mechanism of a child in order to assume the full responsibility for the child's care and training. The

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first child is an experiment. The girl at school has had no preparation for motherhood. It has been thought not to be in accord with good taste, with feminine sensibility, with modesty, hardly with good morals, to tell her anything concerning the mystery of life. Thus she marries with only the vaguest understanding of what wifehood and motherhood mean.

The man prepares for his profession of law or medicine or ministry or engineering by years of special preparation added to years of general culture. The woman enters on her far more vital and sacred calling without an hour of special education for her life-work. What wonder that she shrinks from the ordeal for which she has had no preparation; that she seeks to escape it, that she sometimes resorts in her ignorance to the murder of the unborn babe; that when the babe comes she knows not how to care for it and leaves it to hired nurses; that often she sits heartbroken by the empty cradle which her ignorance and incompetence have made empty? What wonder that men, even less anticipating the duties and joys of fatherhood, ignore and neglect them altogether; leave the mother and child at home and spend their evenings at the town club, the village post-office, or perhaps the saloon, "the poor man's club;" think their whole duty of fatherhood fulfilled if they earn a livelihood for the wife and children; find no time to develop comradeship with their boys, and then not mutely wonder at the comradeship their boys find for themselves; think their duty of entertainment fully done if they occasionally amuse the child of an evening as long as the child amuses them; their duty of education fully done if they send the laggard child promptly to school; and their duty of government fully done if they enforce the mother's command, or, much to her perplexity, interpose to set her commands aside and so undermine her authority? It is not strange that our domestic life is so full of tragedies. It is rather strange that the tragedies are not more frequent.

The reader of Jane Austen's novels does not need to be told that in her time girls were taught to expect marriage, if not to prepare for it; that mothers planned a home life for their daughters as the fathers planned a business career for their sons. In our reaction against the era of scheming mothers for marriageable daughters we have gone far in the opposite direction. In our plans of education we prepare our daughters for everything except the life to which they may naturally be expected to devote themselves. They are trained for law, for medicine, for art, for engineering—for everything but motherhood. They are urged to reform the city, the State, business, politics, the public charities, the Church—everything except the home. In what school or college are girls taught the physiology of their own sex? Where are they taught the delicate mechanism of the infant presently to be intrusted to their nurture? Where are they taught the psychology of childhood, that they may know at least the fundamental principles upon which are based the art of motherhood? In what school or college does moral philosophy as taught take any account of the sacred duties of child-training which will presently be laid upon this young woman? "To write and read," says Dogberry, "comes by nature." Dogberry seems to have had the fashioning of the American conception of the family. We appear to think that capacity for fatherhood and motherhood comes by nature.

These reflections have been suggested to us by Mr. Ernest Hamlin Abbott's little book "On the Training of Parents,"[1] reprinted from the pages of The Outlook. So long as our schools and colleges ignore the most vital needs of life, so long as boys and girls are allowed to grow up with only such knowledge of the sacred mystery of fatherhood and motherhood as they may pick up from other boys and girls, the best thing the young father and mother can do is to get what light they can from such a product of combined study and experience as this book affords. But such books ought to serve as a supplement to previous preparatory study, not as a substitute for it.

Mr. Abbott closes his volume with these significant sentences: "Whether he (Christ) ever instructed a child in

[1] On the Training of Parents. By Ernest Hamlin Abbott. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.

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the faith we do not know; we have not been told. What has been told is that when he wished to show his disciples—among them some parents, we may surmise—what religion was, he took a child and set him in the midst of them." No doubt our children are our chief instructors in the duties and responsibilities of parenthood. But they ought to be teachers in a post-graduate course. We ought to come to our laboratories prepared for the work of experimentation by some preliminary education in the essential principles of true fatherhood and motherhood.

❀

The Spectator

"Men are but children of a larger growth," and the last illustration of this that the Spectator has met is in Boston, of all places. There is a widespread notion that even the children at the Hub are born mature, *à la* Minerva, and read Plato and economics in infancy. The Spectator, however, is in a position to testify that, on the contrary, the adult population of Boston now spends a great part of its leisure time in putting together puzzle pictures, after the fashion of the nursery, and enjoys this juvenile amusement with a childlike mind.

❀

The Boston puzzle picture is cultivated, of course. It is not a mere dissected map or a nursery picture. One cannot buy it in the shops. It is made by taking a pleasing and artistic picture of some kind, sometimes Japanese, sometimes French, sometimes American, but never of a well-known subject, and pasting it on a sheet of thin wood, to be cut out by a jig-saw into numberless tricky pieces, with no particular shape to them. The art of cutting these puzzles is to mislead the mind as to how they should be put together. In a child's picture puzzle the pieces, by their queer shapes and evident fit to each other, suggest their probable places. In the Bostonian variety for grown-ups all such indications are calculated snares, and if fallen into will only lead to prolonged and futile struggles. Each piece looks as if it might fit where it doesn't belong, but never suggests its real place in the least; and as the easy picture has, on an average, ninety or a hundred pieces, and the difficult ones run to seven hundred and over, the skill and patience of the players are steadily called upon.

❀

It does not sound so very fascinating, perhaps. But that it is, two cities can testify, for New York has taken up the craze as well as Boston. In both towns there is already a private circulating library of puzzles among a certain circle of intimates, for after doing a picture puzzle once it loses much of its attraction, and is gladly passed along to some one else. One physician, in large practice, has a hundred and eight puzzles, every one of which he has put together successfully, and which he passes round among his friends and patients most obligingly. It does not seem as if, for a nervous patient, a puzzle with a hundred and fifty pieces would be a soothing balm; and yet this doctor finds his puzzles a valuable part of his pharmacopœia. He prescribes them for wealthy patients living in hotel apartments or going South for the winter; and no Boston traveling trunk may be said to be complete nowadays without one of them, at least, tucked into it.

❀

In New York the modern dissected puzzles are called, prosaically, "Puzzles for Grown-Ups." But in the Hub the picture puzzle has a more distinctive and punning title—the "Whatami." With that question, indeed, it challenges any one who sits down before a table to grapple with its heap of irregular pieces. An ordinary card-table will do for the easy "Whatami," but when it comes to three hundred and odd pieces a dining-table is almost imperative. It is not necessarily a solitary game, for any one in the vicinity inevitably gravitates to the table, criticises, condemns, advises, and ends by taking a hand. Those who come to scoff remain to play—they cannot help themselves. "What! doing a picture puzzle?" they cry, scornfully. "How old are you—six? You don't mean to say you waste time over such things! Of course that piece

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doesn't go in there—anybody could see that. It belongs here—no, it doesn't, either. A piece with a straight edge would go in here, one like this, for instance"—and there is no end of their scornful attitude. Down they sit, and it is odds if they get up again till the last piece is exultingly fitted into place; and when they take leave, it is generally with a borrowed puzzle accompanying them.

❀

The Spectator smiled superior at the first introduction to the "Whatami." But, nevertheless, within three days he fell; and the fourth day of his visit to the Hub he succeeded in fitting together two puzzles in succession. On the fifth day, feeling quite expert, he settled down to a really challenging "Whatami" with three hundred and twenty pieces. His companions in the struggle were a Colonial Dame, a society bud, and a member of the Common Council. It was nine o'clock in the evening when they began, on a small card-table. The puzzle, as it grew, developed a width so great that it had to be transferred, in the making, to a larger table, thereby losing much time and energy, and keying up the quartet to desperate efforts. It was Japanese, done in the low subdued tones of gray and brown which are more vague than any Western art can be. A ship gradually developed out of the chaos of seemingly unrelated pieces—a gray ship, sinking in a gray sea, with gray smoke pouring from her funnel against a gray sky, while a gray boat was being launched from the side. Every one of the three hundred and twenty pieces appeared to be gray; and while as a lesson in color values it was superb, it was supremely aggravating in its absence of clues. There was an inscription in Japanese characters meandering down one side, apparently, and this the Spectator concentrated on—not that he understands Japanese ideographs, but at any rate a black or red character cannot, even if chopped into small pieces, be taken for a boat, a wave, or a cloud. It was only later that he discovered that instead of belonging to one side of the picture there were three different inscriptions, each fitting its own unexpected place. The society bud was meanwhile struggling with the waves, and finally succumbed exhausted, and retired from the conflict; but the others persevered. At last the sea was reduced to order, the ship surmounted it, the inscriptions found their proper points of vantage, and the last crooked pieces, after being each turned around half a dozen times and rejected as impossible, suddenly fitted in like magic, and the trio looked at it in triumph. The Spectator felt certain it must be nearly midnight by this time—but he was not prepared to hear the hall clock strike three!

❀

Some players prefer their puzzles without any picture at all on them—a variation which renders them, by the way, an entirely available amusement for the blind. Many grown-ups addicted to the puzzle habit keep a picture in process of development on a table in their rooms, so that, like Mrs. Gamp's bottle on the chimneypiece, they can "put their hand to it when so dispoged." A single puzzle may thus occupy leisure minutes for a week. Those who become exacting as to their puzzles can have them made to order, of unusual difficulty. It is a Bostonian touch that one youth in the Hub is putting himself through college by manufacturing the highest style of Whatamis, on private orders, while in New York a clever woman has nearly the monopoly. But any one with patience and a jig-saw can supply a household and the neighbors with this new-old amusement The height of intricacy is to make one with a picture on both sides, each picture, as far as possible, in the same general tone of color. The natural confusion which ensues can be imagined; but Bostonian intellect, nevertheless, has so far solved every Whatami that the jig-saw has evolved to puzzle bean-built brains. The Spectator is glad to hear that one of the latest devotees of the sport is a high city official of Manhattan. To put two and two together is always a good mental exercise; to put together seven or eight hundred separate pieces into a reasonable whole is surely good training for any one dealing with the chaotic conditions of our municipalities.

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A FLEET IN BEING

BY RUFUS FAIRCHILD ZOGBAUM

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT WITH THE PACIFIC FLEET

THE day is dawning over the land. In a far-extended column the ships move slowly onward upon the gently undulating long smooth swell of the sea, and the smoke rolls sluggishly out from their high stacks and spreads in a heavy haze over the horizon to leeward. The lamps at mastheads and trucks are still burning and glowing in emerald and ruby rays; the fiery points of the running-lights gleam, starboard and port, all down the stretch of ships following—four hundred yards apart, one astern of the other—the lead of the flagship. Higher and higher in the Eastern sky spreads the warm brightness of coming day, and the land looms, a purple shadow against the flush of the morning; suddenly, as if at the pressing of a single stud, throughout the fleet the lights die out.

Two short whistle-blasts from the flagship. Her bows swing to port; into the long curve of her swirling wake ship after ship, coming up, turns her prow, and the fleet, gradually straightening out on the new course, heads in towards the land. In all his glory the sun rises, sending brilliant rays upwards above Santa Margarita Island on the starboard hand and gilding with touches of glittering light the waters reaching to the mainland beyond.

Straight in toward the placid waters of the bay through the narrow passage between abrupt, scarred, and broken headlands, where the shores rise on either side in chaotic jumble of cone-shaped mounds and hills, the flagship heads the column; flying low, almost touching the water, a flock of pelicans swiftly crosses her bows. Again the warning whistle-blasts, again the turn of the helm, and now hoists of gayly colored flags at the signal-yards. Into the bend of a deep bight—where more rugged hills shoulder one another back from the beach, and under them a few small, low-roofed houses are bunched on the strand—the fleet steams slowly. With the screws barely turning, nearer and nearer in towards the shores the great battleships glide, the water parting, with scarcely a ripple to break the smoothness of the surface, before the push of the high stems. Down come the gaudy bunting and black speed-cones from the signal-yards. There is a roar as of the passing of a heavy railway train over a bridge as the ponderous anchors, plunging downwards, drag fathom after fathom of heavy chain through the hawse-holes; simultaneously the shrill boatswain's whistles pipe out on the forecastles. Out swing the long boat-booms from the sides; upwards on the poles at the sterns the ensigns rise, and the many-starred, blue, square "Jacks" are run up on the staffs in the bows. The long cruise is ended.

Thirteen thousand three hundred and fifty miles, more or less, have slidden astern under their keels since the day when the ships, answering in slow majestic heave to the first far-sent greeting of the sea, pushed their noses out between the Virginia Capes on to the wintry stretch of the Atlantic, and the low-lying shores of the land of the flag they bore faded slowly from sight beyond the horizon. With four hundred yards between ships, by night and by day, in fair weather and in foul, the fleet has steamed over blue, tropic seas, where the trade-clouds, opal-tinted, ringed the line where sky and water meet, and the flying-fishes flitted from one foam-crested wave to the other; across the lonely "waste of waters" where the south wind was chill with the frigid breath of the distant Antarctic; through the wind

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swept, gloomy reaches of the Magellanes; out on to the long, smooth swell of the Pacific, northward again towards the homeland—towards home and their own people—though when its coasts, now so near at hand, are reached, three thousand miles of plain and mountain will stretch between the ships and the port from whence they sailed.

Throughout the long journey the throb of their engines has ceased only when the ships have come to anchor or the fleet has paused in its course for a few brief moments—to bury the dead. For death is ever present, even in life, and though the touch of his cold hand was but lightly laid, seven among the thousands of the ships' companies have shipped for the long cruise from which none may return.

In all honor and respect, to the humblest among them the sailor's funeral rites are given. In two long parallel columns—sixteen hundred yards from flank to flank—the great white ships push onward. Seven bells strike; by preconcerted order the screws throughout the fleet cease turning, and the ships, slowly losing headway, come to a stop and lie quietly rolling on the swell of the ocean. Away down the column of the second squadron the National ensign soars quickly to the peak of the mainmast of one of the vessels there, then droops slowly to half-mast; instantly on all the ships the flags flutter upwards, then sink half-way down again, and fifteen thousand men await in silence the consignment to the deep of all that remains of one whose soul has taken flight from among them. The time for a short prayer—across the water from the distance the sweet solemn notes of "Taps"—lights out—come floating through the air. A moment's pause, and up to the peak once more on the ship over there the ensign rises; up to the peaks on all the vessels the flags stream out again. A signal shows at the yard on the mainmast of the flagship. "Full speed ahead, both engines!" the order sounds down into the engine-rooms from the bridges, and onward the fleet steams again over the sunlit sea. Let the dead bury the dead!

Under way at sea the fleet has maintained the standard economical cruising speed of ten knots, practically without deviation; only on approaching an anchorage, or as in the incident of the review by the President of Chile off Valparaiso, when it was not desirable to arrive before that port until at a certain time agreed upon, did the fleet slow down to eight knots; and at times the speed was increased for a short period. Even when a ship fell out of column, taking position to rear or on the outer flank—an only occasional incident when some minor mishap, necessitating perhaps the overhauling of an air-pump or the adjustment of a valve, liable to occur on any steamer, and one which, were the vessel cruising by herself, would pass without notice except by those immediately interested—she was kept steadily on her course, resuming her proper place as soon as the fault was corrected. In no case was the act of a vessel in leaving her position other than one of convenience, and no injury to hull or machinery has occurred that would have compelled absence from the battle line of any of the fighters in the presence of an enemy. The work of restoring all damages was, in every case, performed by the vessel's own force, and the repair-ship accompanying the battle fleet has not once been called upon to execute extensive repairs to boilers or machinery of any vessel of the two squadrons, although it has been useful in making small castings and renovations of piping while in port. Much of the employment of the artificers in her crew consisted in perfecting details of fire-control systems remaining unfinished when the ships left their home navy-yards to assemble at Hampton Roads; and all of this work has been completed during the cruise. The improvement in preservation of uniform pressure of steam, in the smooth running of engines, and in the methods of "firing" has been marked, while the long passages at sea have given exceptional opportunities for the training of firemen, water-tenders, and others of the engineers' divisions in greater number than ever before in the history of the navy.

It is a pretty good showing—sixteen battle-ships, powerful, well equipped, and efficient as any of their respective classes

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and dates of design afloat the world over, forming a fleet ready, after so long a time at sea, for instant service and the supreme test of battle; and the message of the Commander-in-Chief, when he so reported, on announcing the arrival of his command, two days ahead of the schedule, at the destination to which it had been ordered, was framed in no spirit of idle boastfulness. For every vessel in the fleet is in a better state of preparedness—in the working of its material and the training of its personnel—for the stress of war (if need be, which God forbid) than when the cruise commenced three months ago; and if, within an hour of dropping anchor in Magdalena Bay, the despatch, borne on electric waves through the atmosphere to the wires high aloft on the masts of the flagship, had come directing the fleet to proceed to sea, time for "coaling ship" would be the only interval between the receipt of the order and its execution. And even without taking on an extra pound of coal, all but three of the ships could still steam a thousand miles and more, and fight a battle besides.

Thirteen thousand and some odd hundred miles when the Connecticut drops her anchor in Magdalena Bay at seven o'clock, forty-four minutes of the morning of March 12, 1908, and the crew goes to breakfast. An hour or two later a collier comes alongside. All day long the band plays and the bluejackets toil, cheery and willing workers, heaving and hauling at the weighty sacks, crammed full, as they swing up on the cranes from the coal-ship's hold to the decks of the war-ship, and the night is yet young when the bunkers are full once more. Some days pass. The ship gets under way and steams out to the range. To and fro, to and fro, at ten knots she passes before the targets for another two days and part of the morning of the third, her guns speaking as shell after shell roars its way through the air, tearing through the squares of painted canvas on the rafts and throwing great spouts of water upwards, as the projectile strikes and bounds, leap after leap, until one last burst of high-thrown spray, away over near the horizon, marks the end of its flight. Still another day and the torpedoes are "tried," and then, her practice ended, the flagship steams slowly in under the hills of Man-of-War Cove, and once more lies at anchor there.

In the evening the Captain is seated at his desk in the cabin; to him enters the Chief-of-Staff, the skipper's friend and many time shipmate in the forty years back since they were midshipmen together at the Naval Academy.

"The Commander-in-Chief directs that you get under way at daylight to-morrow morning and proceed to San Diego," he says, quietly.

"Ay, ay, sir!" is the Captain's laconic reply as he rises to his feet in acceptance of the order.

Two days later the Connecticut dropped anchor off Coronado Beach, and the Admiral went ashore on a short leave to recuperate. The ship took mail on board for the fleet—ah! those home letters, how eagerly their coming is looked forward to!—and at four o'clock in the afternoon she again put to sea, pointing her nose towards the bay, six hundred miles to the southward, whence she had sailed.

Then came the time in the run when the fires roared and the smoke streaked in black volumes forth from her stacks and the white foam rose at her bows, as the good ship settled down to her work, stronger and ever stronger in her push through the resisting waters, faster and ever faster flinging back the high wave cut by her stem, and the engines leaped to the call from the bridge, like a thoroughbred at the voice of the rider. Amply provisioned and coaled, magazines filled with the battle supply, every gun tested, on she sped, adding another twelve hundred miles to her record, shipshape from stem to stern, and ready for what she was planned and built; for what her crew is trained; for what she has her being—ready immediately—now—to *fight*—and reeling off nearly nineteen knots to a clean wake astern after a three months' cruise.

While it cannot be claimed—and I do not know that it ever has been authoritatively claimed—that our ships are perfect or without defects, or that some of the older vessels are the equals in all

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respects to those of later or more modern design and construction, yet there is not one of the sixteen fighters of the fleet but that could give a good account of herself in action, and that is not in readiness to take up the gage of battle at once. Compare the state of these splendid ships with the conditions existing on the ill-fated squadrons of Rojesvensky! Let the facts speak for themselves.

The recent injudicious and mischief-breeding public attacks on the efficiency of these very ships have been so fully and ably answered by an officer of the line of the service, of such long experience and high reputation, as to render more than passing reference to them superfluous for the purpose of this article; nevertheless, these allegations of inferiority and lack of preparedness of the navy have been so positive and sweeping in their nature that it may be permitted to recall, incidentally, to the minds of Americans what the honest, patriotic, and devoted labor and intelligence of trained men, their fellow-countrymen, have actually accomplished.

Eighteen years ago, almost to a day, before the departure of the sixteen ships of the battle-line of the Atlantic Fleet from Hampton Roads, four small, brand-new steel ships—the historic White Squadron—passed out to sea from Boston harbor, bound for a cruise to the eastward. A few practically worthless "monitors," a small number of antiquated wooden vessels, dependent mainly on sail power and armed with obsolete muzzle-loading guns, formed the rest of the navy of the United States, which careless neglect and indifference on the part of the people and Congress, ever since the close of the war between the States, had reduced to a condition of almost utter uselessness save for the spirit and pride of its officers and men.

Splendidly trained as seamen though they were, not one of the commissioned force of the "White Squadron," from the Commander-in-Chief down, had ever enjoyed previous experience on what was then a modernly equipped vessel of war; not one had other than practice in theory of the new ordnance with which the ships were armed. As the years passed, other vessels, small and relatively unimportant at first, then of greater tonnage and force, were added to the navy; gradually other officers and men were brought face to face with unaccustomed conditions and environment. It is but twelve years since the first battleship worthy of the name put to sea. Since then a short, successful war was waged against a brave and chivalrous if uninstructed foe. Annually, forth from the course at the Naval Academy, slowly but intelligently advanced to meet the changed requirements, youthful aspirants took eager and enthusiastic hold under the conservative and generally wise control of their superiors; added care was taken in the enlistment and instruction of men for the service, and the power and efficiency of the navy rapidly increased, moving always towards a higher plane. Where but two or three years more than a decade ago the modern ships of the navy could be named on the fingers of one's hands, they now number in the scores; the personnel, officers and men, counted then by the hundreds, now mount up into the thousands. Of course mistakes have been made; would it be human if this were not so? But the story of the navy in all this time has been one of steady improvement, of constant, honest, hard-working, intelligent effort towards betterment of material and personnel. Deny this who can! Who will say that this steady striving towards greater and still more thorough efficiency shall not continue!

Only eighteen years in transition from a weak little group of four new vessels and a shameful array of decaying, obsolete wooden ships to the most powerful aggregation of modern men-of-war under one command afloat, a fleet which has successfully completed a voyage unexampled in the history of navies of our times, arriving at its destination prepared to give battle, or for any other service—the cruise over again if necessary—it may be called upon to perform. Americans need have no other feelings than of pride and confidence, not only in their ships, but in the people who serve the flag they carry. I repeat—it is a good showing.

No doubt there is a feeling of satis-

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faction throughout the fleet at the successful accomplishment of the task imposed upon it; but there is no evidence whatever of undue elation on the part of officers or men, or of consciousness of having achieved anything out of the common. To be sure, the Commander-in-Chief has issued a congratulatory order commending the personnel of the fleet for the efficient manner in which the duty has been done, and copies of this have been duly posted on the bulletin-boards of the several ships; but otherwise the work of the fleet has gone on, quite as a matter of course, without a moment's halt, all hands "turning to," entering at once into the undertaking of laying out the targets for the coming practice, and within less than forty-eight hours after the signal to bring the ships to anchor was hauled down on the flagship the thunder of the guns echoed back from the rugged shores of the lonely bay as some of the vessels passed over the ranges at preliminary firing.

That the voyage has proved a veritable practice cruise of great value to the personnel cannot be gainsaid. The fleet is divided into two squadrons of eight ships, and these again into divisions of four vessels; and the essential reason for such a fleet's organization—the ability and preparedness to give battle—has never been lost sight of in every movement or maneuver undertaken. The question of strategy of a campaign concerns the Commander-in-Chief only; and actual fleet formations for battle are extremely simple in themselves. But it requires constant and diligent drill and exercise in the handling of vessels to insure prompt and proper execution of the orders signaled from the flagship, and accurate preservation of station in formation, in line or column, whether of division, squadron, or entire fleet; and, with the exception of actual approach towards an enemy, all the work of the nature referred to has tended toward very material advance and improvement.

Nevertheless, no matter how skillfully your ships may be handled, or how promptly and smoothly movements to and from line or column, changes in direction, advance or retreat, may be executed, all would be futile and useless if the men at the guns were incompetent to use them. So, day in, day out, at sea, the guns' crews have received careful instruction and exercise to a degree hardly possible under ordinary conditions, one advantage offered being the ability to keep the crews intact in the long passages from port to port. Nearly every day while under way the call to general quarters—prepare for action—has sounded through the ships, and officers and men have hurried to their battle stations. Magazines were opened, guns cast loose, powder and shell provided, battle-hatches and water-tight doors and the passages between the casements closed, and the heavy-armored turrets swung, and every preparation for battle, save only the actual stripping of the ship, was made, as if smoke-clouds on the horizon heralded the approach of the enemy's fleet. Daily, for weeks, practice with the Morris-tube device for actual firing—with small guns fixed to the great guns at diminished, movable targets—was kept up morning and afternoon, and even at night the men knew not when they might be summoned to their places at the guns. Four times weekly, after sailing from Rio, the two squadrons, moving onward in parallel columns, have opened out to battle ranges, thus making possible accurate training in range-finding and battery-fire control, and such exercises were carried on, not only by day, but by night as well. Battle range—that is to say, the probable distances between hostile ships engaged in combat—is from four thousand to eight thousand yards, and the fleet has practiced at these and all intermediate ranges.

For weeks the Commander-in-Chief has fought with firm will and undaunted courage the onslaughts of a painful malady. Attacked by rheumatism, he took his station on the after-bridge of his flagship, and from his emergency cabin there, with clear brain and unclouded mind, directed the movements of the great fleet under his command. Not until the finish of gun-practice would the Admiral yield to the earnest solicitations of his friends; his duty, as he saw it, was with his ships, and only when he felt that his task was done would he consent to leave

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them for a respite ashore, that he might regain health and strength to lead his fleet to the last moment of his command over it. Soon the day is coming when, to the booming of guns in salute, the emblem of his authority shall flutter down from the maintruck of his flagship, to be raised no more.

Haul down your flag, old friend! Nothing breaks the true blue of its square save the white untarnished stars upon it. No need to tell you of the loyalty of the lusty lads you love so well, as their rough-voiced cheer sounds in your ears; no fear that you will forget the cordial warmth of the farewell hand-grasps of your officers, and the sincere wishes for your happiness in the years to come. *Haul down!* And the people you have served so truly, in boyhood and youth, through your strong manhood to the ripe years of now, shall say:

"Well done, thou good and faithful servant!"

A LABOR CRISIS AND A GOVERNOR[1]

BY CHARLES B. CHENEY

"STATE troops must be hurried to the iron range if you would prevent bloodshed and destruction of property."

This was the imperative message sent from Duluth last summer to Governor John A. Johnson, of Minnesota. It was reiterated by telephone, by telegraph, and by letter, urged by officials of the mining companies, and emphasized in every report from the local authorities. All declared that without the militia lives and property could not be protected from the striking miners.

Governor Johnson did not send troops, then or at any time. He went himself, and demonstrated that there is a way to handle a tense labor situation without bayonets. And while he did not end the strike or dispel fear by his presence, he did succeed in preserving peace and order without resort to martial law. The fact is significant that throughout the strike the only harm done to persons was inflicted by armed deputies on fleeing foreigners who failed to understand their orders to halt.

Yet these strikers were just the material for an insensate, destroying mob. Their leaders were Socialist agitators, and their "red flag," which figured in all the despatches, seemed a warning of bloodshed to native Americans in the terrorized towns. Men most familiar with the human elements involved were sure that upon the first attempt to operate the mines mob violence would reign.

The success of Governor Johnson is worth noting for its application to future crises of the same kind. When striking workmen commit acts of violence, there is distrust and contempt for law behind their action, as well as passion and revenge. There is a feeling that the law is for the rich man, for capital and not for labor; that the workingman must go beyond the law to secure his rights. The only way to keep such men within bounds is to gain their confidence by fairness. At the same time they must be convinced that the State will not hesitate to use the mailed hand if lawlessness occurs. But fairness is more important than force. In this case Governor Johnson made the striking miners see that the protection of the law was for them as well as for the "capitalist class." He went before them to personify the majesty of the law, but he made them see its justice as well as its power.

The demand for troops placed Governor Johnson between two fires. It seemed that he must yield to one side or the other; that he must cater to capital or to labor. To the general surprise, he did neither, but, as Governor of all Minnesota, he demonstrated that the State was greater than either party to a labor controversy. Neither side was fully satisfied with his course, but it suited the general public, for the Mesaba

[1] A personal sketch and estimate of Governor Johnson by Mr. Cheney will be found in The Outlook of January 25 last.—THE EDITORS.

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did not become an armed camp, neither did its strike rival the record of the Victor or of Cœur d'Alene.

The unskilled labor of the Mesaba mines had been organized in the summer of 1907 by the Western Federation of Miners. The Federation Committee made a demand on the Oliver Iron Mining Company, which was served July 19. It asked that the contract system and bonuses should be abolished, that the working day be reduced from ten to eight hours, and the pay fixed at $2.50 a day for surface work and $3 a day underground. Before this demand was answered the men struck, claiming that miners had been discharged for membership in the union.

The strike tied up practically every mine on the Mesaba range, a district which shipped 24,000,000 tons of ore in 1906—more than thirty per cent of the country's total supply. Four-fifths of the labor employed in the mines is unskilled, and sixteen thousand men obeyed the order to strike. There was no work left for the skilled workmen but to guard the property. The dock workers at Duluth and Two Harbors had struck some days before. Railways and lake vessels had to suspend traffic, and in all about forty-five thousand men were idle.

Conditions in the rough had an ugly look. Mile-long columns of ignorant, sullen men paraded the streets of the mining towns. They marched from town to town and from mine to mine, calling others from work. Most of the men were raw material, new importations from Europe. They had been "induced" in various ways to come, and herded like sheep in the Mesaba district, to furnish a cheap and adequate labor supply. The great majority had no families, but were packed in "boarding-houses" under cramped and filthy conditions. The earliest comers and the most enlightened were Finns, who had been driven from home by Russian tyranny. They were very largely Socialists, and believed that the government of their adopted land was for and by the "capitalist class." Italy furnished another large contingent, and many of the Italians also were Socialists. Most tractable of all were the Austrian Slavs, many of whom quit work unwillingly, but there were Austrian leaders in the strike councils.

It was a bad time for the Western Federation of Miners to start trouble in Minnesota. The Haywood trial, then in progress, was giving the Federation a bad name for deeds of blood and violence, and Minnesota resented invasion by such a malodorous organization. But the Western Federation had special reasons for accepting the invitation of the Finnish Socialists to organize the Minnesota miners. Moyer and Haywood noted that the Steel Trust came of the same family as the Western Miners' deadly foe, the Amalgamated Copper Company. A strike in Minnesota would make more trouble for the Rockefeller interests. There was a still more potent reason. Whenever a strike had occurred in the Western fields, men were brought from the Minnesota mines for strike-breakers. The way to protect Colorado and Idaho miners was to organize the workers in Minnesota.

Moyer and Haywood had sent as their emissary to Minnesota one Teofilo Petriella, an educated Italian Socialist. In a year and a half he had built up an organization numerically powerful. He had wonderful success in fusing such discordant elements as Finns, Italians, and Austrians, and making them obedient to his will. The names of the committee as signed to the strike notice will illustrate what a mélange of nationalities he controlled. They were Teofilo Petriella, N. di Stefano, Oscar Luihhunen, Aate Heiskanen, C. Anderson, J. Maki, John Kolu, A. Takala, Frank Lucas, John Movern, R. Lundstrom, E. McHale, F. Manarini, and J. Connors.

Discontent was the main aim of the Socialist leaders. Whether the strike was won or lost, they hoped to make the men all Socialists. Inflamed by fiery speeches and rosy promises, the mass followed them blindly to certain defeat, having no more idea of the corporate resources of their billion-dollar enemy than the Moros who made war on Uncle Sam. It was currently reported among the men that they would win the strike in about six months, with the aid of money from the West, that the union would then come to own the mines and

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the railways, and every man's share would be good for $2,500 a year.

The business men of the towns, for their part, despised the strikers as "cattle." The mine bosses and skilled employees held no better opinion. Feeling ran high against the strike leaders because of the blow they had dealt to business. Nearly every citizen was enrolled as a deputy sheriff and armed to keep the peace, and employees who remained on duty were patrolling mining property with rifles. Many strikers were known to carry arms. The state of feeling was ominous, and clashes were expected in a dozen different places.

Governor Johnson went up on the Mesaba range to see these things for himself. His purpose was to know the situation before taking any action at all. He did not intend to send militia except as a last resort. At any rate, he would sound the purposes of the men who controlled this human powder magazine.

The tour began at Duluth, where the Governor first conferred with Thomas F. Cole, head of the Oliver Iron Mining Company, with other Steel Trust officials and managers of the "independent" properties, so called. These men with one voice predicted violence at whatever time they started to operate the mines. Without troops to protect them there would surely be loss of life and property. Mr. Cole and his associates served notice on the Governor there and then that, if lives were lost before the troops were sent, the blood would be upon his head.

Governor Johnson would not promise anything, or commit himself at that time. He said that he would do nothing till he had made an investigation for himself. He asked for the hire of a special train from the Duluth, Mesaba, and Northern Railroad, one of the Steel Trust's ore-carrying lines. The train was placed at his disposal, and with it he was able to visit the leading range cities the following day.

In that meeting with the employers the Governor learned their unyielding attitude. They had no use for arbitration, nothing to concede, and no dealings with the union. "We will not treat with the Western Federation of Miners at any time," said Mr. Cole and all the others. "We will make no concessions as to wages, hours, or anything. If the men will not return to work on the old terms, the mines will lie idle until we fill their places."

It was a convenient time for a strike, they said. The companies could not have selected a better occasion for a finish fight with the Western Federation. The dock laborers being on a strike also, the transportation of ore was stopped, and the "open pit" mines at least were forced to lie idle. Settlement of the dock strike was in sight, and when that came the mines would resume as far as possible. What the employers wanted was the militia to protect the men who would go back to work, or the new men brought in. Already they were bringing to the ore fields companies of Montenegrins, and even Arabians, the cheapest and the meekest labor yet discovered.

Governor Johnson had no idle moments in Duluth. He conferred with the sheriff, the mayor, with a committee from the dock workers, and finally received a call from one of that sinister body of strike leaders.

John Maki, a young Finn, undersized, simple-looking, and roughly dressed, had come down from the range that day. He asked to see the Governor, and a friendly labor leader brought him to the hotel. He was hardly a sight to inspire fear or foreboding, and his speech was certainly reassuring. In fact, it was illuminating.

Maki stood before the Governor for half an hour, pleading his comrades' cause and answering a running fire of questions from every side. He spoke slowly, but remarkably well for a laboring man only six years in America.

"You speak pretty good English," the Governor remarked. "How long have you gone to school?"

"Three days," he said. "I learned to read on Sundays and holidays. But I go to school all the time in the poor man's fight for life. I learn by fighting for existence. The most I know I learned when we had the hard times on the range and I went hobo. I was out hobo a year and a half, and I learned many things then."

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Evidently this man was a Socialist, and he had learned his lesson well. "We don't want violence," he said over and over when pressed to say what would happen when the mines opened up. "We are not Anarchists," he insisted. "We believe in government, and we will obey the laws till we can get control of the government by our votes and make the laws we want."

"What about your red flag?" the Governor asked. There was much talk about the strikers carrying the red flag in their parades. Americans were enraged, believing it meant enmity to all government.

"I will tell you about that," said Maki, eagerly. "The Finnish Socialists carry the red flag when they parade, but it is not all red, like the Anarchists'. It always has some name on it in white letters or gold. The flag is made red because the Socialists are made of all workers. They are not any nation. They only know two kinds of people—the capitalist class and the laboring class. They cannot take a white flag because all men are not white. So they take red, because red is the color that runs in the body of every man."

Maki's talk made a profound impression on the Governor. If this man spoke for the strikers, it was plain that they had some respect for law and authority. In one way his talk tended to show the strike leaders more solicitous for order than the citizens and local officials. The night before a deputation of miners had entered a citizens' meeting at Hibbing. It was supposed that they wanted to talk "anarchy," so they were refused a hearing. Maki said that these men were "temperance Finns," and only wanted to request that the saloons be closed during the strike. The great danger from violence, he said, lay in open saloons inviting the idle men, but the town people did not want to close the saloons, and the officials did not suppress the "blind pigs."

The grievances that brought on the strike were explained somewhat by Maki. He complained of the bonus system, under which part of the men's pay was withheld till the end of the season in order to hold them. He said the contract system was unjust, because men working in hard ground might make only thirty to fifty cents a day, while others made as high as four dollars. He also claimed that the men were overcharged for dynamite and other material.

Governor Johnson spent the next day on a tour of the range. The word "range" is misleading when used in connection with the Mesaba district. It is not a range of mountains, and can hardly be called hilly. Back from the high bluffs that crown Duluth the country rises in a huge tableland, slightly inclined, for nearly a hundred miles. The so-called "range" is gently rolling or even flat, and much of it actually swampy. Once pine forests covered it. Lumbermen stripped those hills and swales and sold the land for a song, little dreaming of what was underneath. Now it is dotted with derricks, but its great spectacles are the open pit mines, where steam shovels scoop the ore like sand into waiting cars, and leave artificial craters vast enough to swallow up a city.

Hibbing, the first town visited, was headquarters of the miners' union. The Governor did not hold court in his car or at the hotel, but went himself to the office of the Western Federation, the lair of the fabled Petriella.

The brains of the strike proved to be a small, swarthy Italian, nervous and voluble. His accent was marked, but his English was very good, aud he was reputed to be a great linguist. It was also said that he had a brother in the old country who was a bishop. He had proved himself shrewd and crafty in organizing and controlling this body of men, and it was marvelous to see the little dark man ruling like a dictator over the stolid, fair-haired Finns and Slavs who sat about the anteroom.

Governor Johnson told Petriella what he had come for. Then he said: "You do not believe in the government as it is, but this Government exists to protect the lives and property of the people, and it is my duty to see that they are protected. Whatever your political beliefs may be, you must respect the laws of the land. I hope you will do so, and that you will have no trouble here. If the troops come here, you will have

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to bring them by your own acts. I will not send them unless you make it necessary. If anything is done which makes it necessary for the soldiers to come, they will be sent on a fast train, just as quick as it can reach here, I promise you that."

Petriella, like Maki, declared that the miners wanted no violence. The danger, in his opinion, was from unjust treatment by the officers of the law, which would anger the men and lead to trouble. If the rights of the strikers were respected, he did not look for any violence. The men were forbidden to carry revolvers, he said.

While they talked another strike leader arrived—John Kolu, a union organizer and also a prominent Socialist. Kolu was a Finlander, tall and loud-voiced, and he looked the part of a real agitator; but he, too, insisted that the men did not want "wiolence." He said that men had been detailed by the union to keep their fellows out of the saloons. If the strikers could be kept from drinking, there would be no disorder.

Apparently the citizens of Hibbing did not concur in this precautionary idea, for they said nothing about saloons. Governor Johnson held a conference with the Mayor and business men. He found them, on the surface at least, in more dangerous mood than the strikers. They regarded conflict as certain. They were sure lives would be lost unless troops came to overawe the strikers. The coming of troops would end the strike. Otherwise it would last until the men had spent their money, in the saloons or elsewhere, and had to have more. The citizens laughed at Petriella's promises of obedience to law. Their attitude toward the alien laborers of the Federation was one of contempt mixed with fear. Summary measures were talked of, such as forcible deportation of Petriella and all the other agitators. The very course of action which must have brought bloodshed seemed to find much favor. These people did not conceal their disgust when the Governor told them that he had not found sufficient reason at that time for sending troops to protect them.

It was characteristic of Governor Johnson that the daily newspaper correspondents had free access to all these conferences. He did not invite any newspaper men to join him on the trip, but when the Twin City and Duluth dailies asked permission to send men along, he took one man from each paper on the train with him, and admitted them to hear every conference with the people of the range. The press accounts of these meetings did much to dispel alarm.

At Eveleth, twenty miles east of Hibbing, the Governor encountered a miners' parade. The Virginia union had come over for the day, and two thousand strikers were in column, headed by a band and carrying the Stars and Stripes, but no red flag. John McNair, a Scotch-Irish switchman belonging to this all-inclusive miners' union, headed the parade, but he spied the Governor and collected his lieutenants for a conference. The Governor repeated his warning as given to Petriella, and then asked some questions:

"Are there many Irish among the strikers?"

"No, Governor," said McNair, deprecatingly, "they're mostly all foreigners."

McNair, who evidently had a local reputation for oratory to sustain, planted himself before the Governor, thumbs in his armholes, and delivered an impassioned plea for the rights of the workingmen. John Kolu, who had somehow covered the distance from Hibbing about as quickly as the special train joined in. The other union men, Italians and Austrians mostly, were abashed and had little to say, but all gave assurances that the men would do no damage.

City officials and mine bosses met the Governor at the City Hall. The Mayor had news that the strikers had 131 rifles concealed to use at the proper time. Others said the men were buying ammunition to go "hunting." All expressed foreboding. Mine bosses were afraid strikers would force their way into mine shafts, draw engine fires, and stop the pumps, permitting the mines to be flooded, at great loss of time and money. J. H. Hearding, an Oliver Company superintendent, said he had passed through the 1894 strike riots on the Gogebic range in Michigan, and he felt sure that if the mines started to operate

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they would have a "hot time." "I speak as one who has been chased a good many blocks," he added.

The claim that strikers had not indulged in violence was disputed. One mine employee said that a mob of strikers had come to the Fayal mine pit and frightened the Austrian and Montenegrin laborers away by throwing stones. "How many stones did they throw?" the Governor demanded.

"I couldn't tell; probably a dozen."

"That wasn't many stones for such a crowd to throw," he replied, dismissing that incident.

A crowd had assembled in the town hall, and the Governor was besought to talk to them. He took that opportunity to impress citizens and strikers alike with a sense of their duty.

"I am gratified," he said, "to find conditions less serious than I had expected on the range. There is talk, however, that there will be violence if the mines resume their operations and men return to work.

"I do not see any occasion for the State to interfere at this time, and hope there will not be any. The men have a right to quit work. They have a right to organize and to persuade others to quit work. But if a man wants to work and he and his employer agree that he shall work, he has a right to work, and no one has any right to stop him. If necessary, the State will protect men in their right to work. I hope you will all keep cool, however, and, regardless of your political beliefs, will respect the law and the government as they exist."

Applause broke out in the packed hall. The Governor frowned and rebuked it, saying: "I don't want any applause for saying that. I am not making a political speech." No one who heard him was left to feel that the head of the State Government was talking for popularity. He was delivering an ultimatum, and he meant his words to be weighed and heeded by all concerned.

Virginia, the last range town visited, bore little evidence of strike conditions. All the Governor found there confirmed his belief that troops were not necessary. He turned toward St. Paul again, and next morning was at his desk in the Capitol, having "lost" just two days from routine business.

He was not through with the Mesaba strike, however. There was more disquieting news. The men were marching more than ever, and the transition from a parade to a pillaging mob might come at any time, it seemed. The armed deputies on guard at mines began to stop these parades, and this brought protests. Another overzealous act threatened to produce a genuine outbreak. At Nashwauk, over in the new Itasca County field, the miners were meeting in their hall when Sheriff Hoolihan entered with 150 deputies, like another Cromwell, arrested seven men and dispersed the others. Bitter complaints came from the strike leaders about this. They made fiery speeches, and Petriella told his men to make armed resistance the next time their rights were outraged.

This time Governor Johnson sent three trusted appointees to the range towns as special commissioners to investigate all complaints. They returned and made report of the facts, and the day they reported a proclamation was issued under executive hand and seal, aimed at breaches of duty by officials as well as at breaches of the peace by strikers.

This proclamation defined the rights of all parties, and the duties of public officers. Peaceable meetings must not be interfered with, but were entitled to protection by public officers.

Miners were ordered to stop their parades, as tending to disturb the peace, but were not to be molested on the highways when in ordinary groups. Strikers were warned not to trespass on mining property, or to prevent persons desiring to work from so doing.

"Those in charge of labor unions," said the proclamation further, "are warned that a violation of these directions will result in the use of the military forces of this State to preserve the public peace, and in their meetings are cautioned against the use of inflammatory language calculated to incite violence." Public officers were also cautioned to use their best judgment and refrain from all unnecessary acts which would tend to irritate or excite any class of citizens,

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"whose rights such public officers are bound to protect as well as the rights of all others."

In other words, the law was for labor as well as for the employer. That must not be forgotten. The proclamation came at a critical time, for the dock strike had just been settled, and the companies were beginning to resume work in the mines. This was the time when violence was feared, but it did not come. The strikers welcomed the proclamation. "It is just what we wanted," said Petriella; "it guarantees to us just the liberties we have claimed." The sheriffs and deputies heeded the warning and broke up no more meetings. Miners stopped parading, and there was no intimidation of men who went back to work.

The strike was lost, and the leaders felt bitterly against the mine bosses, but not against the Government. Two days after the proclamation Petriella wired to the Governor to deny a reported march of strikers to one of the mines, and to say further: "We are satisfied with your proclamation, and will abide by it as strictly as possible."

The companies were not satisfied. They engaged squads of armed guards from detective agencies, and spent many thousands of dollars in protecting their property, an expense the State would have borne if the Governor had yielded to their demand. But the Minnesota law forbids any man not a citizen of the State from serving as a peace officer, and this was being violated wholesale. On complaint of this, Governor Johnson demanded from the sheriffs of St. Louis and Itasca Counties the names and addresses of all men sworn as deputies. Lists were furnished to show that every deputy had a Minnesota domicile. No doubt many names were omitted, but the non-residents were quietly shipped back home soon after.

The Federation ranks melted away. Even the payment of weekly strike benefits from headquarters at Denver could not hold the men together. Many Austrians and Italians returned to their homes, their belts heavy with gold pieces. Others went West and found other work. The men with homes and families on the range went back to work, and before long the mines were all running, though short-handed. The strike has now disappeared entirely. The Western Federation of Miners keeps up an organization, with perhaps a quarter of its former membership. Since the strike the range population has shifted and changed much. Montenegrins and Arabians were brought in to fill strikers' places, but they were a failure. Another class of labor has been available since the business recession. Mine bosses have been hiring sturdy Scandinavians for the same money they were paying the weaklings from the South. The steel company has quit looking for the cheapest and most degraded class of foreign labor. The Finns are still the main reliance, but the young Finns most active in the Socialist movement are being weeded out.

All is quiet on the Mesaba range, and years will doubtless pass before another great strike. When it comes, however, the town people of the range will not be so quick to take fright at Socialists and their red emblem of the brotherhood of man. Peace officers will not be so ready to provoke riot by interrupting labor meetings, or interfering with the right of assembly. Native Americans will have a better understanding of this pitiful army of toilers. They are not beasts, but men who know how to appreciate fairness and justice, and to meet it with a corresponding self-restraint.

THE DAWN OF EVERY DAY

BY WILLIAM NORTHROP MORSE

With faint, far buglings in the noble east,
I hear the herald of the struggling day,
Calling each man to victor's earnestness,
To bring in truth the dream of yesterday.

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EUROPE THIS SUMMER

SPECIAL ATTRACTIONS FOR AMERICAN VISITORS

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN

EVERY year many Americans, who know most of the historic monuments and guide-book attractions of Europe, are attracted to the older continent by some special event which interests them, some art exhibition, anniversary celebration, musical festival, fête, or pageant, or perhaps some international fair or convention. The Outlook has asked me to mention, briefly, a few of these special events of the year 1908. Of course many interesting things will happen in Europe before January 1, 1909, which will not be even alluded to here. It is safe to say, however, that not many of general interest to Americans have been passed over without some mention. The early date of this writing makes it impossible to be as definite as desirable in the matter of some programme features.

Perhaps the most interesting and significant exposition of the year to Americans, the most important undoubtedly in the magnitude of the interests involved, will be the Franco-British Exhibition, to be held from May to October at Shepherds' Bush on the western verge of London proper. This Fair, which will cover a space of more than one hundred and forty acres, while offering to the visitor all the features of international fairs, will be specially noteworthy from the fact that it is the largest that London has seen for many years. It is officially supported by the British and French Governments, and will be devoted exclusively to the artistic and commercial products of the two countries and their colonies, including Canada. One-half of the space will be given up to French exhibits, and the display made by the Paris Government and the French people, it is predicted, will be more extensive than that of any preceding exposition outside of Paris. The British colonies and dependencies also will have large and extensive exhibits. The Dominion of Canada has already secured an area of one hundred and twenty thousand square feet, upon which a veritable palace has been erected. In the Palace of Fine Arts there will be shown a thoroughly representative collection of British and French art by living and deceased artists, in the proportion of three to one. It is an impressive list of names which appears on the official programmes. The Earl of Derby is President; the Duke of Argyll (the King's brother-in-law), Honorary President; while the Archbishop of Canterbury, Lord Cromer, Lord Rothschild, and Lord Strathcona are among the Vice-Presidents. The noted Hungarian manager, Imré Kiralfy, is Commissioner-General. Undoubtedly the most popular feature of this Exhibition will be the fourth revival of the Greek-Olympic games. The introduction of this feature at the Exhibition this year has determined the London managers to postpone the presentation of the much-heralded London Pageant until 1909.

Americans will remember with a great deal of lively interest the third revival of the famous Greek-Olympic games which were held in Athens four years ago, at which the American athletic team carried away so many of the honors. It has been many years since these Olympic games were held in Great Britain, and it will be many more before they are again celebrated in the British capital. The great stadium, or amphitheater, which has been built in the grounds of the Franco-British Exposition will seat comfortably eighty thousand people. During the games, which will be celebrated in the week beginning July 13, more than two thousand competitors from various countries will participate, although it is not possible at this writing to give details as to the programme of events.

Two other exhibitions of considerable size are to be held in London during the

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summer; one at Earl's Court, the popular West End London pleasure-grounds, where there will be a Hungarian Exhibition, supported by the Budapest Government, and the other in the Crystal Palace at Sydenham, where the Mexican National Exhibition will be presented under the active and interested patronage of President Diaz and his Government.

The historical pageant, which now occupies a large place among the entertainments of the English summer season, is a comparatively new idea. It is only three years since Mr. Louis N. Parker produced at the little town of Sherbourne a home-made pageant of spectacular effects which the very next year were emphasized and popularized by the beautiful, dignified, and impressive pageant at Warwick, which was extraordinarily successful in every way. The idea spread. It seemed as though a passion for pageantry had seized the English people. Each one was on a more magnificent scale and brought greater success and renown to its projectors. Oxford, Romsey, Bury St. Edmunds, St. Albans, Isle of Wight, Liverpool, and Coventry, all in less than two years, have firmly established the pageant "habit" in the temperament of the English people. The educational value of the pageant is of course very great, not only for those who witness, but for those who participate.

There will be no London Pageant this year. As already stated, this event has been postponed so as not to compete with the Olympic games. Nevertheless, one historic borough of the British capital, Chelsea, will have a pageant of its own—Chelsea, the home of Sir Thomas More, Nell Gwynne, and many other famous English men and women, including the living Ellen Terry, Mr. Augustine Birrell, and others. The Chelsea Pageant will be held in the week beginning June 25. Five other pageants have been definitely arranged, four during the summer. Winchester, the beautiful Cathedral city, will hold one at the end of June under the direction of F. R. Benson, the well-known Shakespearean actor-manager. Beginning the second week in July there will be a pageant at Bedford, in the north of London, and another one during the same week at Cheltenham in Gloucestershire, on the main route from Plymouth to London.

More interesting perhaps, however, to Americans will be the Dover Pageant at the end of July, under the management of Mr. Parker. This pageant, in a city which can boast associations with Julius Cæsar, William the Conqueror, and St. Augustine, will have some new features. Its keynote will be the sea. First a symbolical and mythical scene will introduce King Arthur, the battle of Barham Downs, the death of Gawayne, the embassy from the Roman Emperor claiming suzerainty, and Arthur's defiance. Then the Knights of the Table Round become the narrative chorus, and the pageant proceeds with history proper—introducing William the Conqueror, the founding of the Priory, John, Peter the Hermit, John's submission to Pandulf, the Barons' War, Hubert de Burgh, the founding of the *Maison Dieu*, and the Siege of Dover. Edward I and Eleanor will come home from the Crusades. Henry V will land after Agincourt and woo his Kate. Henry VIII will found the new harbor, meet Charles, and sail for the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Incidentally, the friendly relations of France and England to-day will be linked with the past, for the scene in which Charles I meets Henrietta Maria is to be written by the French poet Louis Tiercelin, and acted in French by citizens of Calais. In the final tableau the fair daughter towns of Dover in America and Australia will stand with the mother town as the central figures.

Travelers with pronounced literary taste who happen to be in the British capital during December next will be very much interested in the celebration commemorating the three hundredth anniversary of the birth of John Milton. The great British poet was, it will be remembered, born in a little house that still stands in Bread Street, Cheapside, London, on December 9, 1608. Features of the proposed celebration will be announced in the press later.

So much for Great Britain. Across the Channel in France there is being held, beginning April 19 and continuing for

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several weeks, in Marseilles, an International Exposition of the Applications of Electricity. This is largely technical in character, but of considerable interest, nevertheless, to the general traveler. Calais is holding from April 19 to October 4 an International Exposition of Commerce, Agriculture, and Science under the patronage of the National Government and the municipality.

The quaint old German city of Nuremberg will hold from September 19 to 30 an Exposition showing progress in the cooking art in general food products, army sustenance, and of general meat, confectionery, bakery, and hotel appliances. It is to commemorate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Innkeepers' Association of the City of Nuremberg, and is under the protection of Prince Alfonso of Bavaria.

In Bohemia, from May to October, the old city of Prague will celebrate the sixtieth anniversary of the accession of Francis Joseph to the kingship of the Czechs. This will be accompanied by the complete Industrial Exposition, held in one of the most beautiful parks in all Europe.

This is a Bayreuth year—although so popular has this great musical festival now become that at this writing all seats for the performances in July and August have been disposed of. Ever since 1872, when Richard Wagner fixed upon the little Franconian town of Bayreuth for the site of his ideal theater and for his own residence, it has occupied a position of great and unique importance in the musical world. The beginnings of what may be called the Bayreuth movement were rather discouraging, and it was not until 1876 that the festival theater was completed and the first performance given of the "Ring des Nibelungen," resulting in a large deficit. "Parsifal" was rendered in July and August, 1882, and from that year the ever-increasing number of Wagner pilgrims made Bayreuth a real success as a musical center, financially as well as artistically. Since the composer's death performances have been given in 1883, '84, '88, '89, '91, '92, '94, '96, '97, '99, 1901, and 1902. This year two performances of the "Ring," five of "Lohengrin," and seven of "Parsifal" will be given.

The Wagner and Mozart Festival at Munich during August and September will no doubt attract many music lovers from all over the world. In the charming, stately Prinzregenten Theater a number of Wagner's festival plays, including the "Ring," "Tristan and Isolde," and "Tannhäuser," will be given, while Mozart will be represented by the festival plays "The Marriage of Figaro," "Don Giovanni," and "Cosi fan tutte." Herr Felix Mottl will be chief conductor.

The Salon des Humoristes, held for the first time in Paris last year, when it was a decided success, will be resumed on May 1 and continue until July 1, in the Palais de Glace. This is a salon of real merit in which the leading exhibitors are men whose reputations have been made as caricaturists, but who are clever painters as well.

The Salon de l'Automne, which was established some years ago to give artists a special opportunity to exhibit the results of their summer work, is now held annually in October.

Among the special minor events of Paris which are likely to prove of some interest to the American traveler there should be mentioned the Gingerbread Fair, "Foire au Pain d'Épices," May 23 to June 17, a very ancient ceremony, frequented mainly by the laboring classes, and highly picturesque in character; the Neuilly fair, June 13 to July 7, the resort of the fashionable set who have remained in Paris during the summer; the Grand Prix, held at Longchamps, just outside of Paris, on a movable date, but always within the first fortnight of June; Bastile Day, July 14; the Salon de l'Automobile, the latter part of November, the great social, sporting, and industrial event of the year; and the Réveillon (night before Christmas), the great spectacular feature of which is the midnight mass.

The open-air theaters of France, particularly in Brittany, are always exceedingly picturesque and well worth a visit. In Brittany alone there are at least forty peasant troops which give open-air performances during the summer months.

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During this summer the peasant troop of Ploujean from Finistère give a performance of all the farces of Pathelin. Other performances will be given at different towns in Brittany, but the dates have not yet been fixed. In the south of France many open-air performances are given mainly by the professionals of the Opéra, Comédie Française, and the Odéon in the amphitheaters of Arles, Orange, Beziers, and other towns of Provence. At the Théâtre de la Nature du Ramier du Château at Toulouse representations will be given, beginning the latter part of May or the first of June, of a number of classic French operas. In Poitou and in the Vosges the open-air theater has developed as an interesting entertainment feature during the past few years. Representations will be given during the present summer, but the subjects and dates have not as yet been announced.

Among other special features on the Continent may be mentioned the International Art Exhibition at Brussels in April; the inauguration in May of the "Amatori e Cultori" Art Exhibition by King Victor Emmanuel at the Palazzo dell' Esposizione in the Italian capital; the celebration in Madrid of the centennial of Spain's war against Napoleon I (May 21); the inauguration in the early summer (date not fixed) of the new Campanile at Venice; the Civic Historical Carnival during June at Delft in Holland; the annual meet of the German-American Turner Society at Frankfort-on-the-Main in July; the ninth International Geographical Congress at Geneva, July 27 to August 6; the Illuminated Civic Procession early in August in Antwerp; the Art Exhibition in Munich, from May to October; the fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of the American College at Rome, December 8; the Priesthood Jubilee of Pope Pius X on December 18, when his Holiness will celebrate mass in St. Peter's in the presence of more than seventy thousand people; the celebration of the three hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the University of Oviedo, Spain, and the centennial of the Siege of Saragossa at the same time and in connection with a Franco-Spanish Exhibition.

UNTAUGHT WISDOM

BY JOHN BURROUGHS

PEOPLE who have read some of the things I have published denying reason to the lower animals write me stories of the wonderful intelligence of their cat or their dog or their horse or their canary, and seem to fancy I am or should be silenced. Now I admit that the dog often does things that seem to transcend instinct, but I admit it reluctantly, and ease the admission by the word "seems." I am not certain but instinct modified and trained by hundreds of thousands of years of close companionship with man is adequate to account for all he does. I am not certain that after all these ages of human association his mind is developed beyond that of his brother the wolf. He is gentler, more confiding, and more adaptive, but his cunning and his prowess are less, and I doubt if he is any more of a rational being. Domestication improves the wild animals, not by developing their intelligence, but by subduing their wildness and making them more submissive to our wills. Like the wild grains and fruits, the more able they are to serve us the less able are they to shift for themselves. Those persons who look upon instinct as an inflexible, cast-iron rule make a mistake. No live thing is entirely a machine; the vital forces certainly act in ways quite different from the mechanical; and yet I am convinced that the behavior of the lower orders is, for the most part, automatic.

The manlike apes undoubtedly show gleams of what may fairly be called reason; and trained elephants develop a wit that at least gives us pause. One

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has to be careful how he ascribes reason to even the highest of the lower animals, because there are creatures which we look upon as much lower in the scale of life that yet exhibit a degree of intelligence apparently on a par with reason.

For instance, take the case of the little hermit-crab. This creature has no shell of its own, so it takes for its habitation the shell of some other sea animal, often that of the whelk. Upon this shell the sea-anemone often grows, and reaps its advantage in being moved about from place to place by the crab. And the crab finds its advantage in the copartnership, or what the biologists call the "symbiotic association," in the tentacles of the anemone which come down near the head of the crab and seem to afford it some measure of protection. If from any cause the anemone be torn away from the shell, what happens? Now here is where the great reasoning powers of the hermit come in; it hunts about seeking another anemone, and when it finds it growing upon some object, it struggles to loosen it, and, having done so, places it on its shell. It wants the protection the anemone affords it. At least that is what the biologists say. Now whose cat or dog or horse does anything half as wonderful as that? And yet shall we believe this all but brainless crab possesses the faculty of reason?

Many incidents might be cited from insect life that are quite as wonderful. The ants and termites do things that seem to imply an unmistakable faculty of reason, at the same time that they do things or allow things that seem almost idiotic, as when a large species of ant allows the little thief-ant to live in its nests and devour its eggs or larvæ and never seems to know what is going on. But take the case of the ichneumon-fly, which lays its eggs on or near some caterpillar or beetle grub. When the eggs hatch, the young ichneumon burrows into the body of its host, feeding on its tissues, but not attacking such organs as the heart or nervous ganglia. Why not? Because injury to these organs "might mean immediate death to the host," and consequently death to the young ichneumon. Shall we say, then, that this hungry "milk-nosed maggot" reasons? Something reasons or has reasoned in this case, but is it the maggot?

The same kind of reasoning power appears to be possessed by some trees and plants. Take the case of the candelabra tree in South America as described by Weismann, which protects itself from its great enemy, the leaf-cutting ant, by harboring inside its hollow branches another species of ant, which makes war upon the leaf-cutters. To requite these ants for the protection they afford the tree and to attract them to it, the tree has developed a special kind of food for the ants at the base of the leaf petioles, just where the danger is greatest. There are said to be other species of this tree that do not develop this food, and they do not have the ants to protect them. The story is almost incredible, because it seems to make a thinking, planning, reasoning being of a tree, but the fact I have stated seems well established. What shall we say, then; do these low forms of life possess man's faculty of reason, even if they behave in this very reasonable way? I do not believe it, any more than I believe the ingenious mechanical device of the orchid to secure cross-fertilization is the result of reason in the orchid. We must call it by some other name. Its genesis is different. Human reason progresses, invents, finds new ways. It is like man's two hands, which can be turned to many uses. Man's organization and physical powers are not specialized as the lower animals' are; he is free, and master of many fields; his superiority is mental, not structural like that of the bird. The specialization is in his mental powers, the power of reason, which gives him dominion as the wing gives dominion to the bird.

How animal knowledge differs from human knowledge is well illustrated by one of the solitary wasps that Sir John Lubbock tells about. When this wasp lays an egg, she knows whether the egg will produce a male or a female; the female grub needs more food than the male, and the wasp always puts five insects by one and ten by the other. And yet are we to believe that she counts in the human way? I cannot believe that she does. I cannot believe that she has any knowledge, in the human

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sense, about the sex of her eggs. She does this thing as automatically and unfailingly as a machine. Remove any of her insects and she does not miss them.

How the lower forms of life—ants, bees, bugs—know what they seem to know is a mystery. They know without having to learn as we do. They know from the egg. If any of them had the gift of reason, they would have to learn in the human way, they would have to travel the painful road of experience, and suffer defeat many times. But they know not defeat, they know not failure, they know neither the perplexities nor the triumphs of reason, any more than the elements do. Their wisdom comes into the world with them, and is much older than they are.

It would seem as if all nature were pervaded with mind or mind-stuff. As science has to assume the existence of the all-pervasive ether to account for many physical phenomena, so, it appears to me, we have to postulate this universal mind to account for what we find all around us. Things are so wise! The lowest organisms know from the start all that it concerns them to know. I say "know," when of course, in the strict sense, there is no knowledge involved in their behavior; it is only a question of an inborn impulse. But whence the impulse? We only rest with words when we say it is the nature of organisms to do so and so. What gave the particular bent or impulse to this nature?

A wild plant that gets a late start or that grows in a cold climate will make less length of stalk than the same plant when it gets an early start or when it grows in a warmer climate, reserving its energies to produce and ripen its seeds. If it can be shown that all this is the result of mechanical or chemical laws, I still want to know why these laws act thus and not otherwise; I want to trace to its source this solicitude about the seed.

Is not man's wisdom also older than himself? Is not every pound of force that he uses through his own members or through the mechanisms that he invents a part of the sum total of the force of the physical universe? In like manner, may we not infer that every spark of intelligence he shows or is capable of showing is a part of or a manifestation of the intelligence that pervades all things? As he modifies and uses the cosmic force through his various mechanical devices, so the cosmic intelligence is modified and individualized through his reason and personality. The inorganic intelligence of universal nature, so to speak, becomes organic intelligence in the realm of life, appearing in the lower orders in what we call instinct and in man as self-knowledge and the higher consciousness.

Our cats and our dogs are, as it were, pulled along in our wake. They learn without instruction to do certain things, which they see us do, if these things are in a line with their natural activities, such as clawing, pawing, jumping, seizing, etc. They learn to open gates and doors and pull cords, and many other things. I recently saw a common cur dog that would sing when told to do so; he would lift up his head and send forth a long, low, rather musical howl. This came easy to him, as howling is one of the dog's natural accomplishments. A dog loves to play at the game of hunting up the ball or the stone which you throw, because this act is in a line with his instincts, and he never tires of the fun. Of course a dog can be trained to do almost anything, but to enlighten his mind about the whys and the wherefores of the thing is quite another matter. You can train an animal to act, but can you train it to think? Of course your dog or your horse could not be trained to do its trick did it not possess certain powers that may be called mental, such as power of attention, power of imitation, power of association, capacity to feel a stronger will. But these powers are all phases of the animal's instinctive activities, and do not presuppose judgment or reason. When we train an animal, we make, as it were, an artificial channel for its mental currents to flow in, and they flow there without conscious choice or self-direction, as water flows in the channel we make for it. How helpless they feel themselves to be, poor things! If the lions knew their own strength,

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how they could defy their trainers! But they have no self-knowledge or self-thought.

A recent nature writer says he can understand an animal only by putting himself for the moment in the animal's place. Will he not in that case make the animal think and reason as *he* does? Let him put himself in the animal's place and remember what he does from habit, his unconscious automatic acts, and then he will get some insight into animal psychology. When we do a thing from pure habit and unconsciously, we act as the animals do, without thought or reason, we know not what we do; like a child when it sucks or a bird when it sings.

As we go our round of chores or duties from day to day, we do many little things without thinking about them at all. We shut the door behind us, we wind our watches, we put out the light, or similar slight acts; we do things "absent-mindedly," as we say, and we do them correctly. We know what wonderful feats sleep-walkers sometimes perform, and frogs will do certain acts intelligently with most of their brains removed. The animal's life is evidently a kind of sleep-walking, or absent-mindedness, that is, when compared with our conscious self-direction. We are awake and know what we know, but the dog or the horse is not aware of his own knowledge.

I do not think the position is tenable which Jordan and Kellogg take in their work entitled "Evolution and Animal Life," namely, that it is a power of choice that distinguishes reason from instinct. A hunted animal may take this course or that without any act of reflection or reasoning as to which may prove the more advantageous. You may see a robin exploring a tree, looking for a place to build her nest; she chooses this limb or that; does she therefore reason about the matter? In building it she takes one straw and rejects another; is she therefore arguing with herself all the time? One place and one weed stalk pleases her, and the other does not. That, I fancy, is all there is to it. Offer a baby two different-colored balls, and it will choose between them. Is this choice an act of reason?

These authors tell an interesting incident of two monkeys, one of which was of an egg-eating species and the other of a nut-eating species. He of the egg-eating race took the first egg he had ever seen and proceeded to crack it and suck out its contents, after the manner of his tribe. The other one cracked his egg as if it were a nut, and the inside ran out and fell upon the ground. After looking at it for a moment in a bewildered way, he scooped it up, sand and all, with his hands and swallowed it, and then ate the shell also. Then the writer makes the astonishing statement that this was an act of reason on the part of that monkey! Instinct failed him, and reason came to his aid and prompted him to devour the egg! Is it not much easier to fancy that an instinct came to his aid that was much older than his special nut-eating instinct—the simple eating instinct itself? The egg proved to be a kind of food that appealed to him, and he swallowed it. It was no more an act of reason than was that of the other monkey. If I myself were offered a new viand or a new fruit, my eating of it would not be an act of reason, but the prompting of taste and appetite. I once saw my dog eat a beefsteak mushroom, but I am sure it was not his reason that prompted him to do so, but the good smell of the mushroom. A coon knows how to suck an egg because he comes of a race of egg-suckers, but the tame coon I had in my youth knew instantly what to do with the first pancake it ever saw. When we know not what we do, when we act from an impulse or without thinking, then we act as do the animals. When we stop to consider, or act from thought or judgment, then we are rational beings.

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ENGLISH LITERATURE[1]

M. JUSSERAND says in the preface to his "Literary History of the English People:" "Many histories have preceded this one; many others will come after. Such is the charm of the subject that volunteers will never be lacking to undertake this journey, so hard, so delightful too." These words, written in 1894, were a prophecy of a score or more of histories, ranging from the ambitious Garnett and Gosse to the shorter school manuals. The authors of the latest history of English literature forestall much inevitable criticism by admitting frankly that they write not for specialists or scholars, but for the general public, hoping, as they say, "to interest and amuse, and in some measure to instruct, ordinary readers." They have in mind an increasing body of mature readers, outside of school and university, who wish guidance in the fair fields of English literature. The volumes are admirably adapted for this purpose; they are written by men who have done important work in various periods of English literature; while the mechanical appearance is all that could be desired—large and clear print, a variety of excellent illustrations, and withal a judicial arrangement of innumerable details.

The authors depart from the custom of all recent historians of English literature by excluding any account of Anglo-Saxon, or Celtic, or Norman literature. They begin their story with Caxton, treating Chaucer, Langland, Malory, and Wiclif retrospectively. The King's English, as we understand it, was fixed in the reign of Edward IV. "We can thus say," they add, "that by a happy chance the age of Caxton coincides for all practical purposes with the era of Modern England: for did it not witness, approximately at any rate, the fixation of the English speech as we now have it; the presentation in print of such speechmasters of aforetime as were still intelligible to the multitude; the sunset of the old religion and the old romance; the dawn of the new learning and of the knowledge of the new world?" In view of Stopford Brooke's history of English literature up to the Norman Conquest, it can scarcely be said that Anglo-Saxon literature is mainly of philological and antiquarian interest; and yet the authors of the present history have a clear right to the limitation which they set for themselves; and the average reader will be apt to agree with them.

They are wise, too, in emphasizing the biographical part of literary history, even at the expense of literary criticism and of literary origins and movements. They have been at much pains to give the biographical element its proper proportion, on the ground that the environment and personality of the authors may be the more clearly set forth. Unquestionably too many histories of literature are written for the specialists, and are clearly beyond the reach of the popular mind. The biographical sketches in these volumes, containing as they do apt quotations from letters and journals, striking descriptions of the personal habits of the authors, and choice bits of reminiscences of friends, are calculated to awaken an interest in their writings. The sketches of Lamb and Scott, for instance, or the descriptions of Dryden at Will's Coffee House and of Milton in his old age, are of absorbing interest. Mr. Nicoll's lifelong interest in anecdotes and memoirs has no doubt strongly affected the character of the book.

In fact, the authors interpret literature in a broad sense rather than in its more technical aspects. The attention given to philosophers, historians, and even theologians enables one to understand authors in relation to the intellectual and moral tendencies of their respective ages. They believe, with Jusserand, that "Bacon, Hobbes, and Locke are the ancestors of many poets who have never read their works, but who have breathed an air impregnated with their thought." For the first time, perhaps, Locke is sketched at sufficient length to enable

[1] A History of English Literature. By W. Robertson Nicoll and Thomas Seccombe. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. In 3 volumes. $6.

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one to understand his great influence in fixing the intellectual tone of the eighteenth century. In the chapter on "Religion and Letters from the Age of Chaucer down to 1611" there is an excellent story of the main religious tendencies from Wiclif to James I, and especially of the making of the English Bible and the scarcely less significant Prayer Book. Likewise the chapter in the last volume on "Nineteenth Century Thought" in which are sketched the Utilitarian, High Church, Broad Church, and Scientific movements is of great value to any student of Victorian literature. The authors have emphasized also the memoirs and letters of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In every way they have considered literature, not as a thing apart from national life, but as rather growing out of the most vital and significant affairs of men.

It must not be thought, however, that creative literature is slighted. There is a very complete story of the evolution of the Elizabethan drama, which gives evidence of scholarly research and judgment. Mr. Seccombe's knowledge of Elizabethan literature, as was evidenced by his volume on the "Age of Shakespeare," is at once extensive and accurate. One is most disappointed, perhaps, in the account of the beginnings of the romantic movement in the eighteenth century, and yet even in this all too brief account there are some happily phrased passages that go to the very heart of the movement.

There are many details that might be cited as evidence of the value of this history. The mottoes at the heads of chapters are especially appropriate, and serve admirably to strike the keynote of the various authors. The quotations given in the body of the book are always well chosen, though unfortunately the reader often has no way of telling who wrote them. The bibliographies at the end of the chapters are suggestive and authoritative. In fact, we do not remember to have seen a history of literature so admirably adapted for inciting further study.

There are some serious defects besides those already suggested. There is often a lack of proper proportion in treating authors—one sees, for instance, little reason for the slight attention given to Robert Browning. The arrangement of the various books and chapters does not seem to be happy; why should a chapter on historians ending with Macaulay intervene between chapters on Byron and Shelley, or why should Carlyle be separated from other writers of the Victorian age? A more serious defect is the paucity of felicitous criticism; one misses, for instance, the concise and almost final criticism found in such brief manuals as Stopford Brooke's or Moody and Lovett's. In a word, the book, as a whole, lacks greatness—it has not the large perspective of Taine, nor is it written in the glowing style of Jusserand, nor is it marked by the literary judgment of Courthope.

Comment on Current Books

Novels and Tales

On "Frank Danby's" new novel "The Heart of a Child"[1] one critic has astutely but not quite fairly commented that Sally Snape's heart was not that of a child but that of a Diana of the slums, kept so by what the author really does lay much stress on—Sally's "instinctive fierceness of virginity." There is something in this view of the novel as a study of physiological psychology, but it is to be added that the outcome of the tale shows that Sally really has both heart and goodness, and that the same qualities may be found even in that gilded London youth, "Lord Kiddie." It is this sincerity of heart about the two lovers that saves the book from the charge of cynical and realistic portrayal of decadence which has been brought with more justice against Mrs. Frankau's former stories. There are here also some pictures of life which are distasteful and over-intimate, yet as a whole the book encourages faithfulness, rightness of conduct, and sincere love. No one has ever questioned the author's cleverness as a writer; and her knowledge of curious phases of London life is singularly extensive. Sally is in turn a child of the slums, a worker in a

[1] The Heart of a Child. By Frank Danby. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

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pickle factory, a milliner's assistant, a chorus girl and dancer, a hit of the day in a music-hall specialty, and finally emerges as the bride of Lord Kidderminster. Few books of recent publication hold the reader's attention more closely.

It is always a pleasure to a reviewer of fiction to come across a book by a new American writer which has the rare quality of ease of manner. This may not sound like high praise; but a look back at the "best sellers" among American fiction for the past two years indicates that hurry and flurry are popular. Wooden characters, brutal action, plots rushed through a machine, and the style of a yellow journalist have made some queer successes among the multitude of unliterary readers. We hope to see more books like "The Tenants."[1] It is leisurely but not lengthy, humorous but not boisterous; and it has a gradually developing plot-interest which does not degenerate into cheap sensationalism. The old Gwynne mansion, its associations, its tenants, and its neighbors —all make a fine background for an original and even exciting story. A pleasant book, this, to read and lend to a friend. Its author's name is totally unknown to us, but we venture to say that we shall hear of it again.

"The History of Aythan Waring"[2] is a carefully written story of English rustic life, with a few well-drawn characters of widely contrasting types. A middle-aged woman who has married an elderly man conceives a great antipathy to one of his adopted sons, and so passionate an affection for the other that she practically marries him out of hand. Her hatred of the other youth creates a tragic situation. The story is very well told.

Not exactly fiction, yet with some of the best qualities of fiction in that it has characters who are individualized, humor that is gentle and cheery, and incident if not plot, is Miss Zephine Humphrey's "Over Against Green Peak."[3] "Aunt Susan, Jane, and I" are all pleasant people to know, and the dear spot of earth on which they dwell is made to show its charm agreeably and even alluringly. The reader takes part in the simple tasks and quiet enjoyments cordially, and puts down the little book with the feeling that it has afforded entertainment and that it has about it the unmistakable air of literary grace and refinement.

The great spruce forests of Maine furnish the scene of Mr. Holman F. Day's romance.[4] It is rugged and homely in the writing, as befits the topic, and it does for Maine what Stewart Edward White's "The Blazed Trail" did for Michigan as a direct picture of the work and life of the men who make lumber. The plot is melodramatic, and the bad man is well pummeled both as timber-baron and for his early personal sins. There is plenty of red blood in the book, perhaps a bit too much, but, like all Mr. Day's stories and poems, it is fresh and is inspired by honest love of the woods and the woods-people. It is sure to be widely read.

Miracles This is a handsome reprint of a work highly esteemed fifty years ago.[1] Archbishop Trench, like his contemporaries Dean Alford and Dean Stanley, was a distinguished Biblical scholar. Since his time the progress of learning has carried the discussion of miracles to a further point than he rested at. The wonderful works of Jesus in healing disease, treated in this volume as miraculous, are not so regarded by modern psychologists. Notwithstanding this and other points of opinion belonging more to the past than to the present, there is much of permanent value in the Archbishop's work. But the need of this reprint is not obvious. Nor is it obvious how the first sentence of the Introductory Preface by Dr. Palmer—"Miracles are of the essence of Christianity"—is consistent with his subsequent statements, "The more knowledge increases, the more miracles diminish. . . . What is a miracle in one age of the world will be a commonplace in another"—true statements these.

Prince Urussov's Memoirs The river Pruth separates Russia from Austria and Rumania. It forms one of the boundaries of the Russian province of Bessarabia. The population of the province is largely Jewish. At Kishinev, the chief city of this province, occurred recently a terrible pogrom or massacre. As illuminating Russian treatment of the Jews, we have now in the memoirs of Prince Serge Urussov, Governor of the province, a permanent and vitally valuable historical document.[2] Prince Urussov is a member of one of the oldest princely families in Russia, distinguished during five centuries for honorable service to the nation. He has been Marshal of his provincial nobility. He has been President of his provincial zemstvo, or district council, and Chairman of the Justices of the Peace of his district. He was Vice-Governor of the Province of Tambov

[1] The Tenants. By Mary S. Watts. The McClure Company, New York. $1.50.
[2] The History of Aythan Waring. By Violet Jacob (Mrs. Arthur Jacob). E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.25, net.
[3] Over Against Green Peak. By Zephine Humphrey. Henry Holt & Co., New York.
[4] King Spruce. By Holman Day. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.

[1] Notes on the Miracles of Our Lord. By Archbishop Trench. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1, net.
[2] Memoirs of a Russian Governor, Prince Serge Dmitriyevich Urussov. Translated and Edited by Herman Rosenthal. (Authorized Edition.) Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50, net.

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before going to Bessarabia. He was invited to membership in the Witte Cabinet. He was elected by a large majority to the first Duma, the lower house of the Russian Parliament. Here he showed himself a leader, not so much of the nobility as of the people in general. As Mr. Rosenthal says in his interesting introduction to the memoirs, the Prince's conduct in the Duma has been noted for its frankness and true democracy and for its freedom from narrow party affiliations. Prince Urussov allied himself in the Duma with the Liberal-Radical party known as the Kadets, or Constitutional Democrats. His first speech there embodied the fruit of his experience as Governor of Bessarabia. In these memoirs he declares that, after examining the secret papers in the Central Police Bureau at St. Petersburg, he found nothing to justify the assumption that the Ministry of the Interior thought it expedient to permit anti-Jewish demonstrations at Kishinev. Furthermore, he regards as spurious the letter alleged to have been written by the Minister of the Interior, suggesting indulgence toward any active warfare carried on by the Christian populace against "Jewish oppressors." The Prince does point out, however, that the press played a significant rôle in preparing the pogrom by printing accusations against the Jews calculated to excite passion, also excited by the "League of True Russians." This body apparently enjoyed "a certain degree of protection from the Government" in so far as it was regarded as "a patriotic bulwark of the autocracy and Russian nativism." The Kishinev police noted this tendency. They probably thought that "a hostile attitude toward the Jews was a sort of Government watchword." Finally, it would seem that certain authorities connived at the militant jingoism. Aside from the pages devoted to explaining the pogrom, Prince Urussov's general survey of the Jews in Russia is of equal interest. He thus summarizes the traits of Jewish traders:

> Knowledge of the market, clever use of credit, quick floating of capital in connection with a small margin of profits. Their weak point was also manifest—the offering of a glut of goods that were cheap, but of poor quality. . . . However, there are lines of occupations that, being in themselves objectionable, constitute, as it were, a Jewish specialty. It must be conceded that the cases arising in connection with the smuggling business and complaints against usury are checkered with Jewish names.

But would the fear of Jewish circumvention of the law, or Jewish exploitation of the people, account for all the Russian hatred of the Hebrew? One must look for it, as our author says, rather in an instinctive fear among Russian orthodox believers arising from the conviction of "an ever-progressing, irrepressible victory on the part of a foreign and hostile force."

Rhode Island Students of the early colonial history of Rhode Island will welcome the new edition of Mr. Irving Richman's standard work, "Rhode Island: Its Making and its Meaning."[1] It contains in a single volume all the material of the original two-volume edition, including the useful maps, and presents the same handsome typographical appearance, the only difference being that thinner paper is used. At this late day no extended comment is necessary, but we would point out that Mr. Richman's still remains the most complete account of the origins and development of Rhode Island up to the time of the death of Roger Williams. It is the work of a scholar trained to the use of documentary sources, and is also the work of a writer of no mean narrative skill. Indeed, for a "scientific" history the element of human interest bulks uncommonly large in its pages.

Stained Glass and France During the early morning certain restaurants observe the custom of furnishing their customers a cup of coffee, rolls and butter for, say, ten cents; the same, with a boiled egg, for, say, fifteen cents; with two eggs, for twenty cents, etc. Finally, one may get a very hearty meal for fifty cents. In like manner, Mr. Sherrill[2] suggests instructive tours in France to those who would inform themselves about stained glass. Do they desire the shortest possible itinerary? Do they want to confine themselves to the thirteenth century only, to the fourteenth, to the fifteenth, to the sixteenth? Do they want to combine, say, the fourteenth and fifteenth, the fifteenth and sixteenth? Do they want a general tour covering all the centuries, yet seeing few places? Do they want a comprehensive tour, seeing many places? Let them try Mr. Sherrill's suggestions. It will save them bother. He is a practical guide. In addition, he is a particularly pleasant guide. He is not an authority on glass in the sense of a man who does nothing else. No, indeed; he is a lawyer, and on his vacation trips in France and his study of glass there he is still just a lawyer on his holiday. Thus he lures one doubly. Somehow the tyro puts his hand more confidingly in the man's who stands more nearly alongside him and knows only something about a subject than in that of the great genius who knows it all, and who may be just a bit patronizing. Mr. Sherrill, how-

[1] Rhode Island: Its Making and its Meaning. By Irving Berdine Richman. (Second Edition.) G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.50.

[2] Stained Glass Tours in France. By Charles Hitchcock Sherrill. The John Lane Company, New York. $1.50.

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ever, knows far more about stained glass than do most people. He naturally divides the golden age of art, as it affects French stained glass, into three divisions. The first comprises the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the second the fourteenth and fifteenth, and the third the sixteenth. In the first division he finds, of course, a large number of examples, comparatively few in the second, and the largest number in the third. Fortunately for the creation of popular interest in stained glass, practically every tourist in Europe goes to Paris, and who in Paris is unaware of the existence of the Cathedral of Notre Dame, even if he be of that of the Sainte-Chapelle in the Palais de Justice? In Notre Dame's northern transept there is a great rose window. It is probably the finest one in the world of its period, justly says Mr. Sherrill, while the Sainte-Chapelle offers a perfect instance of a thirteenth-century chapel preserving intact its original glazing. Let the tourist see one of these easily accessible windows, and he is a dullard indeed if he does not long to see more. It is to be hoped that he puts his hand into Mr. Sherrill's.

Trevelyan's American Revolution

Part III of Trevelyan's fascinating history of the American Revolution[1] includes his account of the tragical winter at Valley Forge, the shameful cabal of Conway against Washington, the surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga, the needlessly indecisive battle at Monmouth Court-House, and the successful diplomacy of Franklin at the court of France. Trevelyan is a historian, not an annalist. Those who hold the academic view that a historian should be free from all prejudices and predilections, and should give the reader a colorless narration of events without interpretation, will criticise this work from beginning to finish as not true history. It is as interesting as Lord Macaulay's History of England, and partly for the same reason: the historian is interested in the events which he narrates, and he succeeds in communicating his interest to the reader. The events have for him a moral meaning, and he so narrates the events as to impart to them that moral meaning. The reader is left in no doubt that his author admires Washington and despises Lord North and George II ; that he admires the self-denying courage of Benedict Arnold and despises the self-seeking incompetence of General Gates; that he has no use for the politics of John Adams, and unbounded respect for the diplomacy of Benjamin Franklin; that he thinks Lafayette's courtesy and courage are worthier of praise than his judgment, and agrees with George Washington that Charles Lee was a "damned poltroon." In our judgment this is a cause for commendation, not for criticism, of Sir George Trevelyan's work. We entirely dissent from the view current in certain academic circles that the historian should be without either feelings or insight, and should content himself with transcribing events from the movable type of history as though he were a mere stereotyper. We commend this history as interesting, interpretative, and, in its main point of view, true. Probably Trevelyan recognizes too little the dominant war feeling of Great Britain; possibly he gives too unstinted praise to certain special favorites of his, Franklin for instance. But in the main his reading of history and his interpretations of character are confirmed by the facts which he narrates and the issues which have proceeded from them. He gives to his readers the truth, not merely the facts, of history, and his story is far more interesting than most novels.

[1] The American Revolution. By Sir George Otto Trevelyan, Bart. Part III. Longmans, Green & Co., New York.

Friedrich Nietzsche

Friedrich Nietzsche, the mad philosopher and prophet of the superman, has at last found a sympathetic biographer in Mr. Henry L. Mencken.[1] It is Mr. Mencken's belief that although Nietzsche died insane, and although his insanity was of a slowly progressive type, dating back many years before his death, his philosophy is none the less worthy of serious attention. "If a raving maniac says that twice two make four, it is just as true as it would be if Pope Pius X or any other undoubtedly sane man were to maintain it. Judged in this way, Nietzsche's philosophy is very far from insane." In Mr. Mencken's opinion, then, Nietzsche very distinctly and forcibly maintained that twice two make four; indeed, he claims for his hero a widespread influence on the thought and literature, the speculation and theorizing, the politics and "superstition" of to-day. Most people will regard this as a rather large claim, but there is no denying a lively interest in the peculiar views of the man who, more than any other in his generation, gave his life to combating the established order of things religious, social, and political. And in Mr. Mencken's book the reader will find his curiosity amply gratified. Whatever may be thought of Nietzsche's philosophy, there is here a clear exposition of it in vigorous, straightforward language, together with a really interesting and thoughtful biographical memoir.

[1] The Philosophy of Friedrich Nietzsche. By Henry L. Mencken. Luce & Co., Boston.

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Letters to The Outlook

SOCIALISM—PRO AND CON

I

Your concise and logical article on Socialism in The Outlook of March 7 should do lasting good. Your exposition of Democratic Socialism, or voluntary co-operation, as contrasted with State Socialism, is excellent. It seems to me that all right-minded people must favor the former. The latter should find favor only with those who can discern no other method of curing those evils of our present system which lead to the unjust distribution of wealth. Since reading Mr. George's "Progress and Poverty" in the early '80's, I have felt that he put his finger right on the weak spot of our present system. His plan when adopted will bring voluntary co-operation without abolishing the wage system. The single tax will free opportunities and abolish monopoly, so that wage-workers will receive their fair share of wealth produced—the full amount they contribute to the wealth fund—in other words, "all they earn." This will not be accomplished through man-made artificial methods, which State Socialists advocate, but through the operation of the natural law of supply and demand. Competition has failed only so far as it has been interfered with by monopoly.

JOHN B. HOWARTH.

Detroit, Michigan.

II

As Dr. Abbott says, "Man has a right to the product of his own labor, because it is really a right to himself." But, what is more, as long as human nature is as it is, here is the basis of a class struggle more severe than any which now exists. One tendency would lower the product of business and intellectual ability to a common level. To this men of a high grade of talent would rebel; consequently there would develop a privileged class, who would draw large salaries and accumulate much private property—people whom Mr. Spargo admits would own steam yachts, fast horses, and all the accessories of a modern aristocracy. To make Socialism possible there must be brought about a radical social change, at present utopian; a solution for existing inequalities only as far as it leads to a wiser adjustment of capital and wages, and a clearer perception of what is just between man and his fellows. And in this connection, in the midst of all the theoretical discussion of this subject, it is wise to consider the practical effect of the adoption of Socialism in this country at the present time. Can any one fail to see that it would be followed by such an unsettlement in values and loss of confidence as we have never experienced before, beside which as a cause a "corrective regulation of corporations" or an "inelastic currency" would pale into insignificance?

W. R. BARTLETT, M.D.

North Guilford, Connecticut.

III

Your article in this week's Outlook on Socialism endeavors to state the case fairly, but it seems to me you fail of success. You say, "The objection to State Socialism is not that it is an impracticable ideal; it is essentially unjust. Man has an absolute right to the product of *his own* labor, because it is really a right to himself." In this last statement you take your stand with the most radical wing of Socialists, who strenuously maintain that to every person belongs "the product of his labor."

The Fabian Society of Socialists, of which Mr. Campbell is a member, steadfastly discountenances all schemes for securing to any person or any group of persons "the product of their labor." They recognize that wealth is social in its origin and must be social in its distribution, since the evolution of industry has made it impossible to distinguish the particular contribution that each person makes to the common product or to ascertain its value.

Mr. Campbell uses the sewing-machine as an example of the necessity for socializing certain artificial means as well as the natural means of production if we are to attain the highest civilization, not undervaluing for one moment the necessity for character development. In the light of present-day fact, is this not a reasonable demand? About sixty years ago labor-saving machinery began rapidly to take the place of hand tools. During this period wealth production has increased at least fifty-fold. To-day one worker, by the aid of the machine, produces more wealth than fifty workers could produce sixty years ago. The problem of production has been largely solved, but we are still laboring under a radically bad distribution of the wealth.

GEORGE R. LUNN.

Schenectady, New York.

IV

Your article on Socialism appears to me to place the subject before the reader in a light which is, to say the least, misleading, if not contrary to the facts implied in the fundamental principles of the doctrine properly

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known as Collectivism, or State Socialism, as you term it. You quote Mr. Campbell as advocating "that the nation should be one great producing firm." You agree with his contention that the objects of nature are not properly subjects of private ownership. My object is not to contend here whether Socialism is just or unjust; I wish to show that if the nation can claim ownership or socialization of the objects of nature, it must use them economically.

Let me turn to your excellent method of testing the general principle by a concrete case—and this is where your article is mostly misleading. In the first place, you assume in your Crusoe example a stage of social development which is anterior to capitalism; and as all consistent Socialists claim that Socialism is a form of society evolved after Capitalism, then your example is, to say the least, poorly chosen. But granting that it may be used in the sense that children playing "store" ought to typify their actual business relations in after life, let us examine what John actually does.

The general principle, be it remembered, is the justice of a Socialist State owning and using the tools of production as a consequence of owning the natural objects. John, you say, *pays* the islanders in *labor* for a tree. He makes a canoe of it. No Socialist will deny his right to own this canoe under such conditions. But if the State is a Socialist one, John will *not pay* the community for a tree. The community will *pay* him for cutting it down, and also, if economic demand requires it, will *pay* him for fashioning it into a canoe. Has he now a right to own this canoe? Surely not. But he wants fish. The Socialist community *pays* Peter for his labor in catching fish with the aid of the socially owned canoe or tool. The fish belong, as does the canoe, to the community. The canoe is still a tool and remains with the community, but the fish are consumption goods, and both John and Peter can purchase them, other things equal, with the medium of exchange, whatever it may be, *paid* to them for their labor. Such a series of Socialistic transactions your Crusoe or primitive example does not furnish in order to test a principle which applies to a stage of social development far removed from the one implied by your example.

A few lines further on you claim that slavery was unjust because the workman's product was taken by the slave-owner, and then that "State Socialism is unjust because it takes the whole of the product for the community." This comparison is most misleading, since it does not state that the slave got little or no return for his labor, while all Socialists claim that a Socialist community gives the laborer the full equivalent of the product created.

ALLAN NAPIER.

Dorchester, Massachusetts.

OUR DUAL BANK SYSTEM

Has this country a banking system? Are its banks a coherent aggregation of units founded with some unity of design and operated with some uniformity of method? What are the facts?

Briefly, the answer is: The business of receiving deposits subject to check is in this country about evenly divided between two sets of institutions—the National banks incorporated under Federal charters, and the State banks operating under charters from the several States. The National banks by themselves form a well-knit system, with their deposit business under perhaps the most careful governmental restrictions that exist. The State banks are an unorganized body of institutions chartered under widely varying laws and generally very loose restrictions; some are called banks and some are termed trust companies; some are confined in their operations to banking, and some are allowed to do a great many other things, so much so that they are not incorrectly called "the department stores of finance." The National banks as a class keep twice as large a percentage of cash reserve as do the State banks. The cash reserve of the National banks must consist of specie and legal tenders; the cash reserve of State banks may consist of National bank notes.

In other words, we have two classes of banks, one strong and one weak. This would be bad enough if they lived apart, but, through the deposits of State banks in National banks, the two become inextricably entangled. The deposits of the State banks in National banks are estimated at $450,000,000. This is a burden on the National banks too heavy for them to carry; it was never contemplated by the framers of the National Bank Act; and it, more than any other one factor, tended to prolong and intensify the recent suspension of cash payments throughout the country. The result of this interlacing of the two classes of banks is that we no longer have one strong and one weak class, but a weak conglomerate mass.

Much as we need currency reform, we need more a real system of banks; or if, because of our dual system of State and Federal government, we must retain our dual system of banks, let it be insisted that the strength of one class be not wasted in bolstering the weakness of the other. This can be easily attained by a simple amendment to the National Bank Act prohibiting

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the payment of interest by National banks on the deposits of State banks. As a result the reserves of the two bank systems would be quite separated.

Better still would be the requirement of reserves by State banks equal to those of National banks, but that would necesitate uniform action by all the State governments—a utopian dream.

Best of all measures, however, is for the people to study more carefully the conditions of the banks of their locality. They have been too careless as to where they put their money. Apparently any old bank was good enough; and as for trust companies, the popular interpretation of this title has been "a company to be trusted"—which it often is, but not because it is a trust company, but because of the honesty, wisdom, and conservatism of its management. We discriminate in the selection of our butcher, tailor, doctor, or lawyer; why not select our bank, and favor with our deposits only those institutions which by the character of their loans and the size of their reserve *in cash* most merit our confidence. F. S. MEAD.

Boston, Massachusetts.

[Several correspondents have objected to Mr. Carnegie's calling our banking system the worst in the world. Mr. Mead's letter appears to us to go far to justify Mr. Carnegie's severe criticism. Mr. Mead's proposal, a novel one so far as our observation goes, to keep the State and National systems distinct by an amendment forbidding National banks to pay State banks interest on balances, deserves careful attention.—THE EDITORS.]

BLEACHED FLOUR

In the article on "The Pure Food Law—What Has It Accomplished?" published in The Outlook February 1, it was not possible for me to give all the facts relating to any subject, and I should deem it a favor if you would now allow me sufficient space to reply to the letter published in The Outlook on April 11, in which Mr. John E. Mitchell says that certain statements of mine on the bleaching of flour are untrue. In this letter Mr. Mitchell denies that an inferior low-grade product of flour can be bleached until it has the appearance of the best. He asserts that only the high grade of flour is aged and whitened by the bleaching process.

I would refer Mr. Mitchell to the series of experiments made by Dr. E. F. Ladd, Chemist and Food Commissioner of North Dakota, and reported by him in detail at the Annual Convention of the State and National Food and Dairy Departments, held at the Jamestown Exposition July 16–19, 1907. Dr. Ladd said:

> A series of experiments were carried out to indicate the amount of low-grade flour that could be added and "improved." It has been stated that low-grade flour cannot be "improved" by bleaching. We have found that baker's grade can be improved, but not to the extent as are the better grades. While macaroni wheat is not inferior to other wheat in our own estimation, by many it is considered to be inferior and is sold at a much lower figure, often from ten to twenty per cent lower. Macaroni wheat is capable of being bleached. To a patent ten per cent of baker's flour was added and then bleached and there was secured a whiter product than the original patent.

Dr. Ladd states that bleaching injures the gluten in the flour and therefore injures the bread. He showed six loaves of bread at Jamestown, arranged in pairs, bleached and unbleached; in each case the expansion of the unbleached loaf was the greater. He concludes from these experiments "that the claim of the manufacturers of bleachers that the patent flour can be increased from 10 to 20 per cent is true, or, in other words, *that low grade flours can be added to the patent or a cheaper product substituted for a dearer one;*" or, as Dr. Wiley expresses it, "At the present time flour is extensively bleached for the purpose of making an inferior article resemble a superior one."

Mr. Mitchell states that none of the mills are attempting to bleach the low grades of flours. It is to be presumed that Dr. Ladd knows what the millers are doing in the State where he is Food Commissioner, and he said at Jamestown: "One of the best-known mills in North Dakota has installed two bleachers; one for the patent and one for the clear. This would indicate well that not only are the lower grades susceptible of 'improvement' by bleaching, but, further, that such is the common practice among millers employing the bleaching process."

In reply to questions I asked Dr. Ladd he wrote, on November 4, 1907, as follows:

> First, with regard to the subject of bleached flour, I maintain that bleaching is a fraud. It enables the miller to use a low grade of flour, and thus increase the percentage output as patent.
>
> Second, it deceives the purchaser, for he chooses largely by the color.
>
> Third, it is dangerous to introduce into flour a product which is physiologically active, even in minute quantities. And, if they can use it in flour, who shall prevent its use in other classes of food products? and who shall say what the limit shall be in bleached flour?

Later he writes:

> Certainly it is a dangerous proposition to open wide the field now after we have condemned the use of sulphurous acids. To permit of a more dangerous product to be substituted in its place cannot be looked upon as other than a backward step, and I do not believe the American people, when they know the true conditions, will permit of it.

Dr. Ladd, in the opening of his Jamestown address, quoted Winton as follows: "The

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chemical bleaching of flour is a matter of grave importance, because the treatment may affect the quality and wholesomeness of the product."

He also gave the verdict of the Paris Association of Bakers, who had studied the subject: "The appearance of the flour was improved; the bread suffered in flavor. This fact alone was sufficient to condemn the process. It is inadvisable to introduce into a product chemicals which, without adding to its real value, may, on long-continued use, prove to be harmful."

As Food Commissioner of his State, Dr. Ladd issues the following circular:

Having investigated carefully the subject of flour bleaching as now generally practiced, and having become convinced that the said process of bleaching results in the production of a product prejudicial to the health and best interests of the consuming public, therefore:

On and After October 1, 1907, the Sale of Bleached Flour Containing any Residue of Nitrogen Absorption, Addition, or Substitution Products and Intended for Consumption within the State of North Dakota, is Declared to be in Violation of the Food Law of the State.

Mr. Mitchell refers to Dr. Wesener, who is in the employ, I am informed, of the millers and promoters of bleaching, and who holds a patent on a new device for bleaching; also to Professor Snyder, of Minnesota, for confirmation of his words. As to Professor Snyder, it is of interest to note that in The Modern Miller for May, 1903, he gives an unfavorable report on bleached samples of flour. The report is too long to be quoted here, but one paragraph will suffice:

In the bleaching of flour is the gain in color sufficient to offset the slight loss in the physical properties of the gluten? Color is only one factor in determining the commercial value of flour. Nitrogen peroxide (the bleaching agent) is an energetic oxidizing compound, and when used for bleaching purposes it must oxidize and cause chemical changes to take place in the compounds which impart color. . . . I do not think, on the whole, that people take kindly to the chemical treatment of food materials unless there is an actual gain in some way in nutritive properties or food value.

Professor Gudeman places the peroxide of nitrogen used in the bleaching process in the same class as sulphurous acid and its compounds, except that he considers it "even worse." He says: "I will condemn any process that will suggest the bringing of such poisonous substances as peroxide of nitrogen or nitric acid into direct contact with articles that are exclusively meant for human consumption, such as flour, etc."

Dr. Gudeman condemns the use of all chemicals in flour. He says, "In my estimation no miller can afford or dare to use the chemicals necessary for this process, any more than he would use arsenic acid, which will bleach the flour fully as well as the peroxide of nitrogen."

Whether or not Mr. Mitchell considers these chemists "competent to judge as to the correctness of the statements" I do not know, but I do know that the arguments advanced so far in favor of the bleaching process all serve the miller and not the consumer.

The consumer still remembers the well-worn plea of the spice manufacturer, that he added the olive-pits, nutshells, etc., to the spices because the pure spices were too strong for the consumer to use.

If the millers who bleach their flour were compelled to label the product "bleached," the responsibility for using the flour would then rest with the consumer. He certainly has the right to say whether or not he wishes his flour chemically treated. There are millers who do not use the bleaching process.

Give the consumer truthful labels on all food products, including flour.

ALICE LAKEY,
Chairman Food Committee National Consumers' League.

A CORRECTION CORRECTED

In a letter signed W. H. Geistweit, in The Outlook for February 15, in which you are asked, "Where do you get the idea that Baptists teach adult immersion?" later is stated: "The fundamental position in this matter is 'believer's baptism,' in which age has nothing to do."

The Baptist Church must have changed in this, for in Winthrop's History of New England, page 363, Governor Winthrop wrote in 1638:

"At Providence things grew still worse; for a sister of Mrs. Hutchinson . . . was baptized by one Holeman [Note of Mr. Savage: "Ezekiel Holeman, founder, with eleven others, of the first Baptist church in America"], a poor man of Salem. . . . They also denied the baptizing of infants."

Boston, Massachusetts. F. W.

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

Anent your article in The Outlook for March 21 entitled "A Voice from the Past," it may interest you to know that in Collins's "History of Kentucky," under date of August 6–13, 1801, is this record: "General camp-meeting at Cane Run, in Bourbon County, near Paris, attended by 20,000 people in 1,143 vehicles and on horseback; 500 candles, besides lamps, used to illuminate the camp at night; 3,000 people, mostly men, computed to have fallen and experienced remarkable bodily exercises." Kentucky had at that time a population of 179,873 whites and 40,342 slaves. It had then forty-two counties.

Anchorage, Kentucky. F. C. D.

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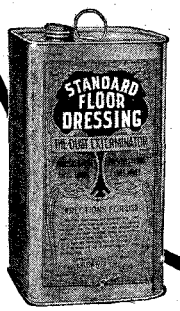

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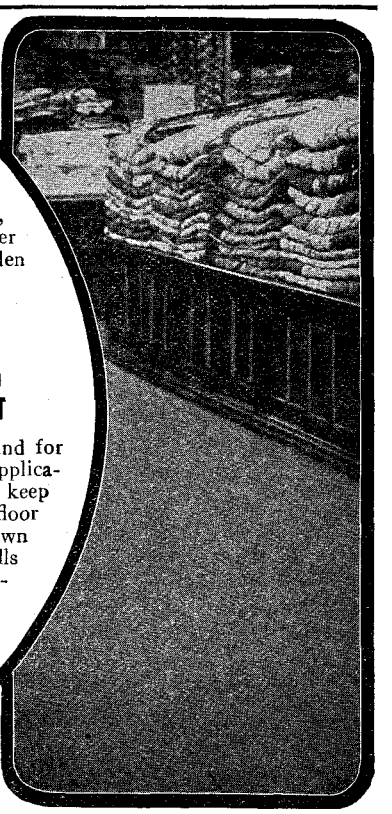

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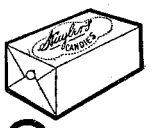

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Suggestive By-ways.
Write for Official Guide
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Restful summer tour de luxe, 67 days, $450; no incidentals; unparalleled concessions; limited. **ITALIAN TAUGHT FREE** by Roman conductor, prof. of Italian N.Y. high schools. Prof. E. G. BARBERIS, 27 W. 96th St., N. Y.

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Baths taken in 1907, 419,277. Number of Guests in 1907, 29,668.
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Let us supply information to convince you that this is the best spot for a vacation on the Atlantic Coast.
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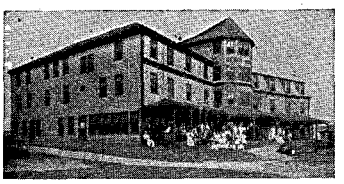

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LAVERTY BROS., Elizabethtown, N. Y.

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Restful home. Modern equipments, 6 miles from Saratoga. A. I. THAYER, M.D.

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All forms of baths, electricity, massage, elevation 1,000 ft. Fine climate; all modern conveniences. **Dr. JOHN C. FISHER,** resident physician. Write for booklet to **Edward B. Gleason, Prop.**

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A select summer home with 35 roomy rooms 1,800 feet elevation; tennis and other outdoor amusements; delightful drives; Adirondack air and scenery; relief from hay fever, asthma Livery in connection.
6 hours from New York via D., L. & W.
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Cottages, furnished, for rent by the season or month. **Central Dining Hall.** Also a large summer home for rent for season.
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Block Island, R. I.

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CHESTER, Vt.—**The Maples.** Delightful summer home. Pure water, bath, hot and cold; piazza, croquet, fine roads. Terms reasonable. The MISSES SARGEANT.

THE MAPLES Delightfully located private home, wide porch, bath, steam heat, 3 minutes to post office. **Dorset, Vt.** fine drives, fishing, golf.

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Bright View Old Point Comfort Virginia

American Plan. $2 to $3 a day. $14 to $20 weekly. Illustrated booklets.

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want pleasant but not too elegant country place, June to October 15th; must be within sixty miles of New York, have garden, and be near water. Place where there is cow and horse or small auto preferred. Catholic church for maids. E. D., 39 Pierrepont St., Bklyn., N.Y.

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We own 155,000 acres of prairie wheat lands surrounding Last Mountain Lake, the holiday and camping resort of the Province of Saskatchewan. We want buyers. We will co-operate with parties interested in establishing colonies. We will contract with responsible, energetic agents. Liberal commission. Send 10c. for handsome illustrated booklet and maps. WM. PEARSON CO., Ltd., *316 Northern Bank Bldg., Winnipeg, Canada*

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Real Estate

CONNECTICUT

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Grove Beach, Connecticut

Furnished cottage, excellently situated on Sound, for rent. Modern improvements. Pictures and description on application. GEORGE WOOD, 54 Market St., Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

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Near Lakeville and Sharon, Conn.

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Furnished cottage
Overlooking Sound. Improvements, fine beach, large lawn, bath-houses, and barn. A. J. SHIPLEY, Waterbury, Conn.

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New Colonial Cottage. Well furnished, artistic, convenient, and sanitary. At
CRESCENT BEACH
Near **NEW LONDON, CONN.** Write WM. S. STARR, New London.

TO RENT
At Sachem's Head, Conn.

Two shore cottages, with driven wells and modern sanitary conveniences; one with six, the other with seven, bedrooms. Price for the season, three hundred and two hundred and fifty dollars. N. E. WORDIN, M.D., 274 Fairfield Avenue, Bridgeport, Conn.

Sachem's Head, Conn. Nine-room furnished summer home—directly on Sound. $250 per season. GEORGE LANDON, 37 Liberty St.

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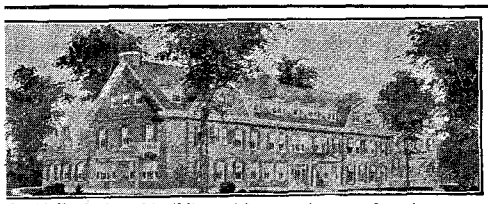

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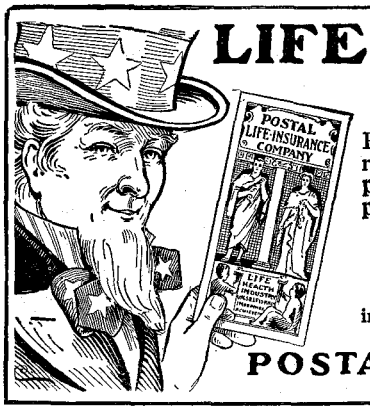

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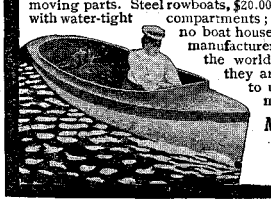

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